DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 393 112 CS 215 261

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TITLE Integrating the Language Arts. Hot Topic Guide 48. Revised Edition.
INSTITUTION Indiana Univ., Bloomington. School of Education.
PUB DATE 96
NOTE 84p.; Earlier edition entitled "Learning Package No. 48."
PUB TYPE Guides - Classroom Use - Teaching Guides (For Teacher) (052)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC04 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Distance Education; Elementary Secondary Education; Higher Education; Inservice Teacher Education; *Integrated Curriculum; *Language Arts; Reading Writing Relationship; Theory Practice Relationship; Whole Language Approach
IDENTIFIERS *Language across the Curriculum

ABSTRACT

One of a series of educational packages designed for implementation either in a workshop atmosphere or through individual study, this Hot Topic guide presents a variety of materials to assist educators in designing and implementing classroom projects and activities centering on the topic of integrating the language arts. The Hot Topic guide contains guidelines for workshop use; an overview/lecture on integrating the language arts; and seven focused documents and articles from scholarly and professional journals. A 33-item annotated bibliography of items in the ERIC database on the topic is attached. (RS)

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ED 393 112

HOT TOPIC

GUIDE 48

Integrating the Language Arts

Revised Edition

This Hot Topic Guide is one of a series of educational packages designed for implementation either in a workshop atmosphere or through individual study. With the comments and suggestions of numerous educators, the Hot Topic Guide series has evolved to address the practical needs of teachers and administrators. As you take the time to work through the contents of this guide, you will find yourself well on the way to designing and implementing a variety of classroom projects and activities centering on this topic.

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HELPFUL GUIDELINES FOR WORKSHOP USE

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OVERVIEW LECTURE

Integrating the Language Arts
by Han-Hua Chao and Carl B. Smith

ARTICLES AND ERIC DOCUMENTS

- Effects of an Integrated Language Arts Instructional Program on Learning Lab Students' Reading Comprehension
- Research Currents: A Lot of Talk about Nothing
- Whole Language: Not the Sum of Its Parts
- Integrating the Language Arts for Primary-Age Disabled Readers
- Language Across the Curriculum
- Whole Language: Integrating the Language Arts–and Much More
- Feature Project–The Old West

UPDATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

A collection of selected references and abstracts obtained directly from the ERIC database.

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In-Service Workshops and Seminars:
Suggestions for Using this Hot Topic Guide as a Professional Development Tool

Before the Workshop:

- Carefully review the materials presented in this Hot Topic Guide. Think about how these concepts and projects might be applied to your particular school or district.
- As particular concepts begin to stand out in your mind as being important, use the Bibliography section (found at the end of the packet) to seek out additional resources dealing specifically with those concepts.
- Look over the names of the teachers and researchers who wrote the packet articles and/or are listed in the Bibliography. Are any of the names familiar to you? Do any of them work in your geographical area? Do you have colleagues or acquaintances who are engaged in similar research and/or teaching? Perhaps you could enlist their help and expertise as you plan your workshop or seminar.
- As you begin to plan your activities, develop a mental "movie" of what you'd like to see happening in the classroom as a result of this in-service workshop or seminar. Keep this vision in mind as a guide to your planning.

During the Workshop:

- Provide your participants with a solid grasp of the important concepts that you have acquired from your reading, but don't load them down with excessive detail, such as lots of hard-to-remember names, dates or statistics. You may wish to use the Overview/Lecture section of this packet as a guide for your introductory remarks about the topic.
- Try modeling the concepts and teaching strategies related to the topic by "teaching" a minilesson for your group.
- Remember, if your teachers and colleagues ask you challenging or difficult questions about the topic, that they are not trying to discredit you or your ideas. Rather, they are trying to prepare themselves for situations that might arise as they implement these ideas in their own classrooms.
- If any of the participants are already using some of these ideas in their own teaching, encourage them to share their experiences.
- Even though your workshop participants are adults, many of the classroom management principles that you use every day with your students still apply. Workshop participants, admittedly, have a longer attention span and can sit still longer than your second-graders; but not that much longer. Don't have a workshop that is just a "sit down, shut up, and listen" session. Vary the kinds of presentations and activities you provide in your workshops. For instance, try to include at least one hands-on activity so that the participants will begin to get a feel for how they might apply the concepts that you are discussing in your workshop.
- Try to include time in the workshop for the participants to work in small groups. This time may be a good opportunity for them to formulate plans for how they might use the concepts just discussed in their own classrooms.
- Encourage teachers to go "a step further" with what they have learned in the workshop. Provide additional resources for them to continue their research into the topics discussed, such as books, journal articles, Hot Topic Guides, teaching materials, and local experts. Alert them to future workshops/conferences on related topics.

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After the Workshop:

- Follow up on the work you have done. Have your workshop attendees fill out an End-of-Session Evaluation (a sample is included on the next page). Emphasize that their responses are anonymous. The participants' answers to these questions can be very helpful in planning your next workshop. After a reasonable amount of time (say a few months or a semester), contact your workshop attendees and inquire about how they have used, or haven't used, the workshop concepts in their teaching. Have any surprising results come up? Are there any unforeseen problems?
- When teachers are trying the new techniques, suggest that they invite you to observe their classes. As you discover success stories among teachers from your workshop, share them with the other attendees, particularly those who seem reluctant to give the ideas a try.
- Find out what other topics your participants would like to see covered in future workshops and seminars. There are nearly sixty Hot Topic Guides, and more are always being developed. Whatever your focus, there is probably a Hot Topic Guide that can help. An order form follows the table of contents in this packet.

Are You Looking for University Course Credit?

Indiana University's Distance Education program is offering new one-credit-hour Language Arts Education minicourses on these topics:

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Language Learning and Development
Varied Writing Strategies
Parents and the Reading Process
Exploring Creative Writing with Elementary Students

Secondary:
Varied Writing Strategies
Thematic Units and Literature
Exploring Creative Writing with Secondary Students

K-12:
Reading across the Curriculum
Writing across the Curriculum
Organization of the Classroom

Course Requirements:
These minicourses are taught by correspondence. Minicourse reading materials consist of Hot Topic Guides and ERIC/EDINFO Press books. You will be asked to write Goal Statements and Reaction Papers for each of the assigned reading materials, and a final Synthesis paper.

I really enjoyed working at my own pace.... It was wonderful to have everything so organized...and taken care of in a manner where I really felt like I was a student, however "distant" I was...."
--Distance Education student

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Advanced Study in the Teaching of:

- Reading in the Elementary School
- Language Arts in the Elementary School
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- Reading in the Secondary School

Writing as a Response to Reading
Developing Parent Involvement Programs
Critical Thinking across the Curriculum
Organization and Administration of a School Reading Program

For More Information:
For course outlines and registration instructions, please contact:

Distance Education Office
Smith Research Center, Suite 150
2805 East 10th Street
Bloomington, IN 47408-2698
1-800-759-4723 or (812) 855-5847

Planning a Workshop Presentation
Worksheet

Major concepts you want to stress in this presentation:

1) _____

2) _____

3) _____

Are there additional resources mentioned in the Bibliography that would be worth locating? Which ones? How could you get them most easily?

_____

_____

Are there resource people available in your area whom you might consult about this topic and/or invite to participate? Who are they?

_____

_____

What would you like to see happen in participants' classrooms as a result of this workshop? Be as specific as possible.

_____

_____

_____

_____

Plans for followup to this workshop: [peer observations, sharing experiences, etc.]

_____

_____

Agenda for Workshop
Planning Sheet

Introduction/Overview:

[What would be the most effective way to present the major concepts that you wish to convey?]

_____

_____

_____

Activities that involve participants and incorporate the main concepts of this workshop:

1) _____

_____

_____

_____

2) _____

_____

_____

_____

Applications:

Encourage participants to plan a mini-lesson for their educational setting that draws on these concepts. [One possibility is to work in small groups, during the workshop, to make a plan and then share it with other participants.]

Your plan to make this happen:

_____

_____

Evaluation:

[Use the form on the next page, or one you design, to get feedback from participants about your presentation.]

End-of-Session Evaluation

Now that today's meeting is over, we would like to know how you feel and what you think about the things we did so that we can make them better. Your opinion is important to us. Please answer all questions honestly. Your answers are confidential.

1. Check (✓) to show if today's meeting was
   - ❑ Not worthwhile ❑ Somewhat worthwhile ❑ Very worthwhile
2. Check (✓) to show if today's meeting was
   - ❑ Not interesting ❑ Somewhat interesting ❑ Very interesting
3. Check (✓) to show if today's leader was
   - ❑ Not very good ❑ Just O.K. ❑ Very good
4. Check (✓) to show if the meeting helped you get any useful ideas about how you can make positive changes in the classroom.
   - ❑ Very little ❑ Some ❑ Very much
5. Check (✓) to show if today's meeting was
   - ❑ Too long ❑ Too short ❑ Just about right
6. Check (✓) whether you would recommend today's meeting to a colleague.
   - ❑ Yes ❑ No
7. Check (✓) to show how useful you found each of the things we did or discussed today.

   Getting information/new ideas.
   - ❑ Not useful ❑ Somewhat useful ❑ Very useful

   Seeing and hearing demonstrations of teaching techniques.
   - ❑ Not useful ❑ Somewhat useful ❑ Very useful

   Getting materials to read.
   - ❑ Not useful ❑ Somewhat useful ❑ Very useful

Listening to other teachers tell about their own experiences.

❑ Not useful ❑ Somewhat useful ❑ Very useful

Working with colleagues in a small group to develop strategies of our own.

❑ Not useful ❑ Somewhat useful ❑ Very useful

Getting support from others in the group.

❑ Not useful ❑ Somewhat useful ❑ Very useful

8. Please write one thing that you thought was best about today:

9. Please write one thing that could have been improved today:

10. What additional information would you have liked?

11. Do you have any questions you would like to ask?

12. What additional comments would you like to make?

Thank you for completing this form.

Integrating the Language Arts

by Han-Hua Chao and Dr. Carl B. Smith

The rise in interest for integrating language arts can be traced back to the success of the integrated curriculum in Great Britain in the 1960s and 1970s. British students were encouraged to communicate in writing and talk about their writing. In the United States, a close relationship between language and cognition was also found (Thaiss, 1984). However, while teachers generally favor an integrated approach, only minimal amounts of integration actually occur in their instruction (Schmidt, and et al. 1983, 1985; and Allen and Kellner, 1983). Noticing this discrepancy between what is advocated and what is practiced in language arts classrooms, this overview will: synthesize the existing problems; review the research supporting language arts integration; propose a new view and definition of integrating language arts; and suggest some possibilities for classroom application.

Problems in Integration Applications

As Melle and Wilson (1984) have stated, one of the difficulties in the application of integrating the language arts is that teachers generally are not prepared to undertake such a change and they are not familiar with the related teaching techniques. Therefore, they consider such moves to be revolutionary and lack the confidence to replace their traditional instruction with new techniques. Furthermore, Cheney (1987) mentions that even new teachers, because they are lacking in sufficient knowledge and security, tend to fall back on following the teacher's guides, textbooks, and commercial programs used in their school districts.

On the other hand, the public school system in the United States, which sets up rigid constraints on time, curricular content, and planning, discourages teachers' efforts to integrate language arts (Kutz, Digby, and Thompson, 1983). For example, time constraints, skill-oriented instruction for "back to the basics," and the traditional hierarchy between the teacher and students all lead to inflexibility. Finally, the public's overtrust of the "teacher-proof" learning programs and the so-called "objectivity" of quantifiable evaluations reinforce the teacher's lack of confidence in her abilities and judgments to create an integrated curriculum.

As we all know, in order to change one's action, one's thinking must change first. Therefore, with the goal of changing or confirming our beliefs, let us now turn to a discussion of pedagogical research. After we are familiar with the language theories, a new view of the instruction of language arts can be further established. Then we can think of those classroom practices which will help us implement ideas in the classroom and therefore eliminate the disparity between theory and practice.

Review of the Research

Based on a description of the rich and varied concept formations and representations in our mind, Eisner (1982) concludes that no single form of representation, words, pictures, music, mathematics, or dance, is in itself complete for learners to experience the construction of various meanings and expressions. Therefore, Eisner advocates an expanded literacy curriculum in order to cultivate and refine learners' different senses across the subject areas of language, science, music, social studies, dance, mathematics, etc. As learners have access to and acquire competence in dealing with the information embedded within multiple forms of representation, they become increasingly able to differentiate and able to learn more from the process of comparison and contrast through cognitive and affective experiences. An integrated language arts curriculum establishes an environment with which the world is presented and understood through various actions, such as speaking, writing listening, reading, drawing, computing, or dancing. The goal is, as Sir Herbert Read has pointed out (in Eisner, 1982, p. 79), "to help children become what they

are not...[and] to help them become what they are." Student potential can be realized in a rich and integrated environment.

The connections between oral and written language enable learners to learn language, learn about language, and learn through language as Halliday (1975) has noted. Heath's (1983) ethnographic study or the relation among home, work and school language also reveals the interconnection of the language arts and of the language arts and the entire curriculum. Thaiss's ERIC Digest on "Language Across the Curriculum" (1984) points out that integration is necessary if learners are to gain power in reading, speaking, writing, and listening; to make use of the interrelationship of these modes; and to unite the inseparableness of language, thinking and learning. Because of this intimate interconnection between mind and language and between oral written language, Busch and Jenkins (1982), Chew (1987), and Wagner (1989) all propose a whole language approach which integrates various language arts experiences. On the one hand, their approach values the social aspect of language for people's interaction and communication. On the other hand, it values the personal aspect of language for one's thinking, understanding, and learning of different subject matters.

Principles and Practices of Integrated Language Arts

Recently, the cry for greater curriculum integration has prompted many schools to adopt an integrated language arts approach. This shifts the instructional focus from gaining language proficiency to using language as a tool for learning desirable content. Perhaps students want to learn about the migratory patterns of whales. They raise questions about whales, read about whales, discuss solutions to their questions, take note, write summaries of their discussions, and share their learning. All forms of language are used in a natural pursuit of knowledge. There is no artificial separation of writing from spelling, of literature from grammar. Students read and write as they explore issues. They integrate the language arts.

These new initiatives in language arts focus on the learner and on the processes that the learner uses to comprehend the written word or to write a composition. In fact, some theorists go so far as to say that children will learn to read and write on their own if their education at home and at school promotes communication, not skill development. If there are books in the classroom, if children are encouraged to share their book experiences with others, if children are encouraged to write to each other about their experiences, and if they are directed to make sense out of their numerous literacy activities, they will learn to read and write effectively and naturally—by doing it.

The Reading/Writing Process

The most popular heuristic device for explaining the reading/writing process uses the sequence words *before*, *during*, and *after*, though theorists are quick to point out that a cognitive process is not a clean sequence of events. It is helpful, however, to think of communication in terms of what the reader or writer does as she approaches the task (Before), what she does to make the communication coherent (During), and what she does to consolidate the communication (After).

Throughout this century, reading instruction methodology has referred to a reading process. Building background, reading for a purpose, and reviewing reading have been a part of teacher training and of basal reader textbooks since the 1920s. But these earlier efforts at defining the reading process seemed to be teacher-directed, whereas the current theories emphasize learners' efforts.

Learners have to take responsibility for their own comprehension. They are the ones who must ask themselves what prior knowledge they have that fits the approaching topic. They are the ones who have to set purpose and ask themselves if they are making sense of the passage. They are the ones who need to adjust their strategies to make the passage meaningful. And they are the ones who need to apply the ideas in their own world and give them some personal value. By making the learner responsible for building meaning (reading) or responsible for communicating meaning (writing) the teacher moves from the front of the room to the middle of the room. Instead of controlling the meaning of communication, the teacher asks students what meaning they have discovered.

Principles and Beliefs

We can arrive at principles and assumptions for an integrated language arts curriculum by examining the beliefs that guide our actions. If we believe, for example, that schools should promote Dewey's concept of the learner as an explorer—a curious person who constantly seeks answers to personal questions—then operating principles will promote that belief. If we believe that learners should explore issues together, interacting with text and with each other in a seamless use of listening, speaking, reading, writing, and viewing, then language arts learning will be integrated through themes, activities, and materials that support thematic, collaborative learning. Listing our beliefs as explicitly as possible is the first step toward guided decision making.

Beliefs About Integrated Language Arts

The beliefs I've listed below are based on the notion that thinking as an inquiry process is at the root of effective school learning and integrated language arts is a major strategy for accomplishing effective learning of all subjects.

- Integrated language arts means thinking or exploring in groups with learners using all forms of language in a natural search for information and solutions.
- Learners need to pose their own questions and to hypothesize their answers in all subject areas.
- Learners should collaborate to test and refine ideas.
- Language is central to thinking and to inquiry. Through language, learners establish a base, a common platform, and they use language as a means for refining ideas and resolving conflicts.
- Exposure to high-quality literature aids comprehension in most subject areas. Literature may be an artistic or a personal expression of a physical, mathematical, or social phenomenon. As such, it places that phenomenon in a personal, and more understandable, context.
- Teachers and schools need to establish an environment in which a community curriculum and a personal pursuit of knowledge can take place.
- Teachers need to employ an integrated language arts strategy for effective inquiry in all subjects. An integrated language arts strategy for effective inquiry in all subjects. An integrated language arts strategy involves learners in sharing their background on a topic, in posing common questions as well as personal ones, in collaborating in their search for answers, and in recording their journey toward resolutions.

- Inservice education needs to be offered to most teachers if an integrated language arts strategy is to benefit children.

With these beliefs, students experience knowledge in a functional, integrated manner, and the administrator creates a school environment in which children work with their classmates to search for answers. Students come to view learning as natural and as a valuable community experience.

Operating under these beliefs, children want to learn language, thinking skills, and modes of communication. They want to communicate effectively. They want to enjoy the ideas and experiences that reading and writing open up to them.

Principles of Learning Language Arts

To guide the development of learning language arts in a functional and integrated way, educators should keep in mind these principles of learning:

- Learning is the process of making sense of the world.
- What students learn is heavily dependent on their previous understanding, their attitudes toward learning, the ways they perceive and organize the world, and their current context.
- Learning requires experimentation, risk taking, and error correcting.
- In a school setting, learning requires numerous resources and materials, such as books, computers, and videos.
- To reduce ambiguity and uncertainty, learners seek to establish order by recognizing patterns or strategic principles and constructing guidelines that give them a sense of control over the language samples they encounter. Spelling patterns and text structure help learners acquire this sense of control.
- Language proficiency occurs through frequent and diverse practice in purposeful, functional settings.
- Language growth is developmental; that is, vocabulary, syntactic complexity, and forms of expression expand over a lifetime as experience, cognitive skills, and personal interests prompt that development.
- Language is a global human behavior that manifests itself in many ways (primarily in reading, writing, listening, and speaking), but it is basically an integrated learning experience.
- Learning is personal; it begins with personal purposes and questions.
- Learning requires feedback both to reinforce and to test hypotheses. Assessment should provide useful feedback to learners.

School administrators who try to guide decision making for language arts instruction should be more concerned with developing belief systems and operating principles than with arguing about the effectiveness of methodologies.

What's Developmentally Appropriate?

The term *developmentally appropriate* fits the activities in any philosophic camp, but the connotations are different. In an interest-based system, *developmentally appropriate* implies a lot of personal choice. The teacher organizes activities that she believes are within the developmental range of her students, and then the students in the group choose the activities they feel suit their needs. A good example of this arrangement can be found in the concept called *emergent literacy*. Emergent literacy usually refers to the gradually developing sense of literacy that young learners have as they experience reading and writing at home and in their neighborhood. As they see signs, hear books read aloud, scribble on paper, tell each other stories, and begin to make sense out of the print world, they become more and more literate. It is both a stage of development and a way of describing the effect that our print-heavy environment has on children. Parents and teachers contribute to children's emergent literacy by filling the environment with print experiences. Children then choose to focus on some and ignore others. Through these natural exposures to language and books, children gradually become readers and writers—as we have traditionally defined those terms.

Developmentally appropriate tasks, then, refer to those concepts and skills that have been observed in typical children of various ages. Those concepts and tasks can then be scheduled into a curriculum so they provide benchmarks or guidelines for teachers and students. These developmentally appropriate tasks represent attainable proficiencies for students and keep them moving toward definable goals.

If teachers or schools decide to follow the stages of reading and writing development, their language arts tasks can be organized along these broad stages. The terms applied to these developmental stages vary, but generally experts recognize three stages: the "emergent literacy stage," the "skilled reader/writer stage," and the "critical thinking stage." These are not crisp categories, for there are characteristics of each in every stage. During the emergent literacy period, for example, learners are certainly also developing reading and writing skills and making judgments about what they observe and read.

The developmental labels simply represent a summary perspective of what happens in language learning across many years of schooling. During their early years, learners observe and experiment with language, becoming acquainted with its various forms and its fundamental purposes for communication—the emergent literacy stage. There is a period of years when learners gain fluency in reading and writing and learn print conventions, such as the characteristics of reading and writing narratives, descriptions, arguments, charts and graphs, and so on—the skilled reading/writing stage. Learners later become increasingly aware of thought structures, of applications to real life, and of ways that language affects the perception of the listener or reader—the critical thinking stage.

Again, the major flaw in labeling stages of development with simplistic phrases is that some people then believe that the only kind of learning that happens during that period of time is represented by the key word (emergent, skilled, or critical), which, of course, is not the case. These terms are used merely to provide instructional direction. A child's early years are spent trying to figure out how print works and what books are for. Later years are increasingly concerned with the effectiveness of communication and the value of ideas.

Children gradually expand their awareness of the relation of print to their lives. They—like all of us—are always practicing and thinking, sometimes critically, and they define themselves as more proficient language users as they refine their skills. These developmental refinements are also characteristic of learning to play a sport, like baseball, or developing a relationship, like being a parent. Developmentally appropriate tasks help children acquire the attitudes and proficiencies that will serve them in school and in daily life.

Tenets for Decision Making

When education seems to be in the midst of a change, decision making is often confrontational. Almost any decision brings conflict. Even if the administrator makes no decision and lets her staff drift with the current, conflict will arise, for teachers and parents who want change to be managed and directed will cry for action. Thus the administrator is thrust into the midst of the debate over change, even if she doesn't want to be there.

When making decisions in language arts, an administrator can be guided by a set of tenets for curriculum, instruction, and assessment. The principles listed below represent a philosophy that gives both the community and the learner a stake in the content and in the process of learning.

- The language arts curriculum needs to represent community culture and the individual interests of students. The community expects schools to transmit culture through literature and to develop fluency in reading and writing sufficient for employment and independent learning. The personal interests of students open up an unlimited array of topics and directions to explore beyond the community curriculum.

- In literature and in communication skills the language arts curriculum needs coherency and a sequence that enables teachers and students to have a sense of direction and a sense of progress across the years.

- Both the community and individual students want language arts assessment to give them an estimate of performance on communication processes and on communication skills and products.

- The assessment of reading and writing needs to represent as closely as possible the acts of reading and writing in their natural states. Assessment for administrative purposes may be different from assessment for individual conference purposes.

- Children need to know how to approach books strategically and thoughtfully.

- Strategic thinking (comprehension) relies on knowledge and practice for fluency and reasonable performance.

- Many reading and communication skills should be learned gradually through the child's literacy environment. Schools should deliberately surround children with all kinds of literacy experiences as one productive means for developing skills and strategies that serve commonsense communication needs.

- Students need to develop the attitude that they are the ones who build meaning in the process of reading, writing, speaking, and listening. They are the responsible agents who must actively pursue meaning through their responses to literature, their organization of thoughts, their selections of words of images when they speak or write.

- Standards for communication arise from excellent literature and from the models presented to the students. Students need opportunities to analyze, reflect, and practice the language models presented to them.

Real-Life Communication

A nagging issue in determining curriculum and in choosing literature is the place of nonfiction in the curriculum. Quite understandably, fiction and personal responses to fiction are the substance of the interest-centered approach. Books and personal experiences that involve adventure and high emotion are the stuff of personal interest. This is why the typical elementary school child spends approximately thirty hours per week watching television—adventure and high emotion. But in the child's world of study, and in the adult world of work and information, nonfictional material is more often required reading.

When students need to study, to find information, or to apply information to solving problems, they need skills and metacognitive strategies that are different form the emotional responses and the reality testing they use in reading fiction. Study reading, information processing, and organizing for problem solving are important life skills that may not develop spontaneously if children are left to pursue only their self-defined interests.

The School Environment

Many of the issues in language arts seem to revolve around the question of the effectiveness of the environment as the primary teacher of literacy and communication skills. If children are placed in a school environment that is filled with high-interest books and offers multiple opportunities to communicate their feelings and ideas, will they thereby learn the language skills, the thinking strategies, the study skills, and the cultural information that they need for a successful life? Will their own interests and an adult advisor (teacher) lead them to the knowledge and the language proficiencies necessary to succeed in school, enter college, or perform satisfactorily as workers in an information age? The stakes are high, aren't they?

Viewing the issue from the opposite perspective, the questions are similar. If children are placed in an environment where the curriculum objectives are the prearranged presentation of cultural literature and the practice of skills that are needed to study and to use information, will they attend well enough to these objectives and apply sufficient energy to them to learn and to succeed later at work outside of school?

This discussion does not preclude a school from mixing interests with a prearranged curriculum. But then the job becomes more complex. And those who hold tightly to a particular philosophy will bemoan the prostitution of their beliefs.

In an ideal world, all learning *would* flow naturally from the curiosity of the learner. In this ideal world, boys and girls would see the moon appear in various shapes and would ask why. On their own, they would make monthly observations, draw diagrams, read books that explain the phenomenon, and study the observations of others. Then they would write a summary of their findings so others could benefit from their experience. All learning would occur in this way, one question and answer leading to another, all subjects open to constant exploration in a perfectly integrated learning process.

There would be no schools in this world. Who would need schools when all learning is naturally prompted and entirely integrated? We have schools because we do not live in an ideal

world. The knowledge needed to thrive in modern society is increasingly abstract and dependent on previous learning, and society requires regular evidence that children are moving systematically toward intellectual adulthood. Even so, I believe that the vision of the curious learner who experiences knowledge in a functional, integrated way should be encouraged in whatever manner modern schools permit. If we can create a school environment in which children work with their classmates to search for answers, we are helping them view learning as a natural and valuable community experience.

We should strive to encourage children to learn language arts in a natural way. As educators, it is our job to instill in children the desire to learn language, thinking skills, and modes of communication. If we are doing our job well, our students will read well-written fiction and nonfiction because they believe that doing so enriches their life by helping them communicate effectively and opening up their mind to new and diverse ideas. If we strive for this ideal, I believe we can improve language arts learning and instruction.

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Effects of an Integrated Language Arts Instructional Program on Learning Lab Students' Reading Comprehension

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Abstract

The effects of an integrated language arts instructional program on reading comprehension skills of learning lab students were examined using the Analytical Reading Inventory, and their attitudes toward recreational and academic reading were assessed using the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey. Subjects were at-risk fifth and sixth grade students, ranging in age from 12 to 16 years, who were enrolled in a single, self-contained learning lab class. The integrated language arts instructional treatment period lasted for nine months, with students responding to pre- and post-measures in September and May, respectively.

Results of correlated *t*-tests revealed significant improvement in five out of six comprehension areas: ability to recall main ideas ($p < .001$), ability to recall factual information ($p < .01$), vocabulary development ($p < .01$), inferential skills ($p < .01$), and drawing conclusions ($p < .03$); ability to recognized cause-effect relationships was not significantly effected. Also, students improved significantly ($p < .04$) in their oral, independent-reading performance as well as in their word recognition skills ($p < .01$). Students did not improve significantly in their attitudes toward recreational and academic reading.

Effects of an Integrated Language Arts Instructional Program On Learning Lab Students' Reading Comprehension

Rationale

Massive amounts of money are spent each year in an attempt to teach children and adults to read. The goal of literacy projects, funded by federal, state, and local governments, is to secure the "right to read" for all individuals. In spite of these efforts, large numbers of people remain illiterate or are severely limited in their reading skills.

The results of numerous studies provide evidence that the number of students failing to learn to read adequately is between 20-25% of the school population (Stedman & Kaestle, 1987). While teachers may do a relatively adequate job of teaching students to decode words, we find that many students lack the skills required to "read to learn" information and to read for pleasure. Teaching an individual to read does not mean, solely, to enable or to empower that person to recognize words in print. Indeed the notion of reading encompasses a far broader definition; reading goes beyond mere word recognition and includes higher order thinking, a complex process involving, "elaborating, adding complexity, and going beyond the given" (Resnick, 1987). Students who are taught to read from this perpective of reading are able to utilize reading to help them solve problems and to expand their knowledge of the world. Since one of the National

Goals for Education is to assist citizens in becoming critical thinkers who are capable of problem solving in order to assist with resolutions to issues that continuously confront our society, we must develop students' abilities to comprehend written discourse at inferential, analytical, evaluative, and appreciative levels (Ogle, 1992). These levels of reading comprehension include the ability to analyze and evaluate written information for its accuracy, its breadth of coverage, its usefulness, and its connection to other sources of information.

Why do many students fail to develop reading comprehension skills that are needed to read successfully, whether it be for pleasure or for learning information? Three factors that impede the development of higher-level reading comprehension skills are: (1) negative attidues toward reading, (2) lack of prior knowledge about topics addressed in written discourse, and (3) lack of vocabulary to understand the writer's message.

Reading attitudes have been defined as those feelings that cause a reader to approach or avoid a reading situation (Readence, Bean, & Baldwin, 1985). The attitude that students bring to the printed page or to the world of print affects even the smallest academic task. Negative attitudes toward reading are very quickly developed when students begin to experience reading difficulties and are almost impossible to overcome, especially as the student gets older. Thus, negative attitudes toward reading become a critical deterrent to reading potential and ability. In many instances, it is not clear which developed

first, poor reading comprehension or poor attitudes toward reading. However, it is clear that as poor attitudes toward reading increase reading comprehension suffers and that lack of reading comprehension ability exacerbates the development of poor attitudes.

Research findings indicate that the older students become the more difficult it is to replace their negative attitudes toward reading with positive attitudes because they often have a tendency to put forth less effort which, in turn, produces a cyclic pattern of continued failure (Butkowsky & Willows, 1980; Dweck & Bemphechat, 1983). It may be that the typical instructional approach used to improve students' reading comprehension skills and, hopefully, their attitudes toward reading should be replaced. Most remedial reading programs for students in the middle grades continue to focus instruction around the basic skills of word recognition. Students are taken back to the "beginning" and exposed again to the subskills of reading (e.g., sound-symbol correspondence, single syllable sight words, blends, syllabication, etc.)---no thought is given to the fact that this approach did not work last year or the years before. To make matters worse, while this instruction is taking place, the students are still responsible for learning the material that was covered while they were receiving special reading training, making them fall twice as far behind. The student's perception of this situation is likely, "I leave class during the reading period to go learn how to read, but when I

come back I have to catchup with the rest of the class on what I missed in reading while I was out learning how to read"---this makes perfect sense, doesn't it? It is easy to understand how situations like this increase poor readers' negative attitudes toward reading. As a result, it is not uncommon for poor readers to become so frustrated with school that they drop out of school.

The importance of prior knowledge as an aid to reading comprehension has been addressed by reading authorities (Beck, Omanson, & McKeown, 1982; Pearson, Hansen, & Gordon, 1979). Lack of prior knowledge about a subject, or a topic, adversely affects a student's ability to comprehend written discourse about the subject. The need to apply what one already knows to what one intends to learn is essential in moving beyond mere word recognition and on to the processes of critical thinking and active interaction with written discourse. Prior knowledge serves as the medium through which new material is filtered, then interpreted, and ultimately stored in a fashion where retrieval is related to the manner in which the information was processed. Many students involved in reading to learn tasks not only have little prior knowledge about the toic, or ideas being presented, but much of what they "know" is inaccurate which further compounds the problem of comprehension. When a student lacks prior knowledge, or has inaccurate information, the new material being filtered through the student's existing knowledge base often finds no place to "fit," so the new material is discarded because of its lack of meaning to the student (Beck & Dole,

1992). Therefore, without sufficient prior knowledge the act of reading becomes meaningless.

The development of appropriate technical and general vocabularies is essential for reading comprehension to take place (Readence, Bean, & Baldwin, 1985). The ability to use technical and general vocabularies, both expressively and receptively, allows individuals to communicate interactively with information being read, written, heard, or spoken. As students progress in school it becomes increasingly important for them to receive vocabulary instruction prior to reading subject-matter texts, so that they will have the technical and general vocabulary to understand what they read.

Teaching a new word to students involves more than merely explaining what it means. In fact, new vocabulary words must be introduced in terms of how they relate to the information being studied in a subject-matter area or textbook. Since most words have multiple meanings, it is unrealistic for a teacher to assume that the mere explanation of what a word means will suffice in terms of making it part of the student's usable repertoire. Students are constantly being bombarded with new vocabulary terms in each subject being taught, on a daily basis. Teachers can facilitate students' reading comprehension of subject-matter texts by using a variety of instructional strategies, such as webbing, dramatization, word games, etc., prior to having students read the texts. An understanding of new vocabulary terms and how the terms relate to what is being taught increases

the student's reading comprehension which, in turn, increases his/her knowledge of the topic, and thus expands the student's ability to utilize the knowledge gained for solving problems, both in and out of school.

By focusing on the improvement of students' attitudes toward reading, expansion of prior knowledge, and vocabulary acquisition through an integrated language arts approach it may be possible to improve the reading comprehension skills of poor readers. The extent to which such an approach would be effective with older students who exhibit poor reading comprehension skills merits investigation. This study was designed to explore the effects of an integrated language arts instructional proram on the reading comprehension skills of fifth and sixth-grade students enrolled in a Learning Lab classroom. Three questions were addressed by the study:

(1) Will there be a significant difference between the means of pre- and post-measures of reading attitudes of Learning Lab students?

(2) Will there be a significant difference between the means of pre- and post-measures of oral reading performance at the independent reading level of Learning Lab students?

(3) Will there be a significant difference between the means of pre- and post-measures of reading comprehensions skills of Learning Lab students?

Methodology

Subjects

Students (n = 16) enrolled in a Learning Lab classroom were included in this study. Operated by a public school district in southeast Mississippi, the Learning Lab classroom offers an alternative classroom environment for male, at-risk students. Ranging in age from 12-16 years, the students enrolled in the Learning Lab classroom had been placed there for such reasons as: the inability to get along with classmates (e.g., fist fighting, verbal altercations, etc.); lack of parental involvement or concern; having been in juvenile detention centers; the need for a male role model, etc. The teacher of the self-contained Learning Lab classroom was a Caucasian male, approximately 28 years of age. The teacher's assistant was an African American female who worked full-time with the class and teacher. The Learning Lab was designated as a fifth/sixth grade classroom, with each student remaining in the classroom for two years. After which time, the student moved on to the local middle school if behavior and performance warranted the move. All of the students were reading below the fifth-grade reading level.

Instruments

A battery of formal and informal diagnostic instruments, administered individually, were used as pre- and post-measures of student progress. In order to determine the interests of each student, the Interest and Attitude Inventory (Cheek & Cheek, 1980) was administered. The Elementary Reading Attitude Survey

(Moe & Woods, 1990) was administered to determine attitudes toward academic and recreational reading. Students' oral and silent reading abilities were assessed with the Analytical Reading Inventory (Woods & Moe, 1989). Form A was used for the silent, narrative portion, and Form B was used for the oral, narrative portion. Form S was used to measure students' silent, expository reading potential. Word recognition ability was assessed by using the Form A word list from the Analytical Reading Inventory and the revised Slosson Oral Reading Test (Slosson & Nicholson, 1990). Form B from the Analytical Reading Inventory was used to identify each student's oral reading miscues. Post-measures of student progress were obtained using parallel forms from the Analytical Reading Inventory, the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey, the Interest and Attitude Inventory, and the revised Slosson Oral Reading Test.

Procedures

The duration of the study was one academic year, beginning in September and ending in May. In early September, each Learning Lab student was assigned to a preservice teacher who was enrolled in a senior-level reading diagnosis/instruction course. During two 50-minute periods, each preservice teacher administered a battery of diagnostic reading instruments, as pre-measures, to his/her assigned student. Under the supervision of the course professor, each preservice teacher scored the instruments and identified the strengths and weaknesses of his/her assigned student; scores on the instruments and

interpretations of the scores were checked by two additional instructors to ensure accuracy.

Based on the results of the diagnostic measures, the preservice teachers designed lessons to teach specific reading skills to their students. The preservice teachers met with their students twice a week, 50 minutes per session, from September through May to provide individualized instruction. All instruction was provided on Tuesday and Thursday mornings in the school where the Learning Lab classroom was housed during the same time period that students normally received reading instruction; no other reading instruction was provided by the classroom teachers on Tuesdays and Thursdays.

Each instructional session included, listening, speaking, reading, and writing activities correlated with textual material (e.g., a book, newspaper, comic book, or magazine article) related to each student's personal area(s) of interest. All lesson plans were checked by the course professor prior to being taught to ensure that the lesson objectives and procedures addressed the reading weaknesses of the student. At the end of each week, the lessons which had been taught were analyzed and evaluated by the preservice teacher under the supervision of the course professor; based on student performance during the lessons, reading strengths and weaknesses were noted.

Each instructional session began with the introduction of three or four key words (which had been selected by the preservice teacher because the words were necessary to

understanding the content of the lesson); each word was presented in the context of a sentence. Presentation of the words in a sentence context was done in an effort to model for the students how context clues may be used to determine the meaning of an unknown word. After being introduced, the words were placed in the student's "word bank." Each student's word bank was constructed to reflect his/her particular interest. For example, one student had indicated a strong interest in basketball, during administration of the Interest and Attitude Survey, so his preservice teacher created a small bulletin board which contained a drawing of a basketball goal and as words were learned, they were stapled all around the goal. Each student's word bank was different in terms of its presentation format and motif, because students had varied interests and because the preservice teachers were very creative in their efforts to design the word banks. At the end of the year, the students were given their word banks to take home, hoping they would continue to add words to the banks.

The integrated language arts lessons were built around selected themes in an effort to activate and build prior knowledge. This approach was used to help students make connections between the "known" and the "unknown," so that they could experience success during reading. Each preservice teacher attempted to select themes that reflected their assigned student's interest(s). However, some students indicated that they had no particular interest(s); in these cases, the

preservice teachers selected themes that they believed would interest their students. Reading selections were presented to the students using many instructional strategies, such as the Directed Reading Thinking Activity, ReQuest, List-Group-Label, the Directed Listening Thinking Activity, the Directed Inquiry Activity, the Venn Diagram, and the Semantic Feature Analysis Strategy. After using each instructional strategy to present the lesson, the preservice teachers discussed with the students the strategy that had been used during the lesson and taught the student how to use the instructional strategy for their own learning purposes. Preservice teachers and students would think of other learning situations in which the instructional strategy could be used to enhance learning. For example, after using the Semantic Feature Analysis Strategy to teach comparing and contrasting, the preservice teacher reminded the student that it would be helpful to create his/her own Semantic Feature Analysis Chart when preparing for a test which required an understanding of the similarities and differences between ideas, groups of things, situations, etc.

During each instructional session, students were praised for active, positive behavior and progress charts were used to document and reinforce appropriate learning behaviors. Progress charts were designed by the preservice teachers for their individual students. Each Progress Chart was unique and was created to represent an interest that the student had expressed during administration of the Interest and Attitude Survey. For

example, the young man who expressed an interest in basketball was given a progress chart that depicted the layout of a basketball court. At various points down the court were velcro dots where the preservice teacher would position a paper figure that was designed to look like the student. Each time the student did something well or in a positive fashion, the figure representing him was moved down the court with the "goal" being to reach the opposite end of the court to score a basket. Each time a basket was scored, points were recorded; for each point earned, the student was awarded a construction paper pennant which he fastened to the edge of the basketball court. Only positive behaviors were rewarded. The kinds of behaviors that were rewarded included: giving an appropriate answer to a question, participating in the lesson with a pleasant attitude, having a smile, making an attempt to solve a problem or answer a question, etc. The Progress chart was used throughout each instructional session. Also, the progress chart was sent home with the student at the end-of-the-year.

The last five minutes of each session was devoted to having the preservice teacher read to the student. The books that were read aloud were short, children's books which were topically related to the theme of the day. Chapter books were not used during this activity because the idea was to expose the students to a variety of books, authors, ideas, and writing styles. As the students became increasingly more comfortable with their own reading ability, they began requesting to read along with the

teacher, take turns reading, or to read the book aloud to the preservice teacher.

Results

Even though 16 students were involved in the study, complete data was available for only 10 students. Results of correlated *t*-tests revealed significant improvement in five out of six comprehension areas: ability to recall main ideas ($p < .001$), ability to recall factual information ($p < .01$), vocabulary development ($p < .01$), inferential skills ($p < .01$), and drawing conclusions ($p < .03$); ability to recognize cause-effect relationships was not significantly effected. Also, students improved significantly ($p < .04$) in their oral reading performance at the independent reading level as well as in their word recognition skills ($p < .01$). Students did not improve significantly in their attitudes toward recreational and academic reading. Table 1 shows the pre- and post-means associated with each of the variables included in the study.

Discussion

The results of this study suggest that an integrated language arts approach, centered around the interests of students, has a positive effect on Learning Lab students' word recognition skills, reading comprehension skills, and oral reading performance at the independent reading level. Significant improvement was made by the students in all levels of reading comprehension except in the ability to recognize cause-effect relationships. However, students did make progress in

their ability to recognize cause-effect relationships as indicated by the gain made between pre- and post-mean scores. Since this skill is the most complex of the skills measured, it may be that more time is needed to develop fully this skill, or it may be that students were not given enough opportunities during instruction to practice identifying cause-effect relationships. Future investigations should monitor instruction carefully to make sure that preservice teachers provide ample opportunities during instruction for students to use each of the higher-level comprehension skills. Based on student responses to the instruction, it appears that the integrated language arts approach as well as the instructional strategies encouraged assimilation and accommodation of information presented in the reading materials; the gains made by the students in the reading comprehsion areas suggest that the students acquired strategies for making connections between their prior knowledge and information presented in reading materials.

Students improved significantly in their word recognition skills and in their oral reading performance at the independent reading level. It is likely that the gains made in vocabulary development and word recognition ability, especially in the area of context analysis, contributed to the gains in reading comprehension skills. As students expanded their technical and general vocabularies, they did not have to struggle to decode unknown vocabulary but could rely on context and critical thinking skills to obtain meaning. Similarly, as students gained

in their vocabulary development their oral reading performance improved because they had expanded their sight word knowledge.

It was disappointing to find that students did not improve significantly in their attitudes toward recreational and academic reading. Because the students appeared eager to do the instructional activities, and seemed to become increasingly more interested in reading, it was perplexing to find that their attitudes toward reading did not change more. A possible explanation is that one of the 16 students maintained very positive attitudes throughout the study, so his scores skewed the pre- and post-means. Also, it is possible that even though the students appeared to enjoy the reading activities and strategies included in the integrated language arts approach, they did not view reading tasks outside of this approach in a positive manner. Since their prior experiences with reading had been negative, they may have responded to the post measure of the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey from the perspective of prior reading experiences. Also, it may be that attitudes take longer to improve than do academic skills. This explanation is consistent with the work of other researchers who have found that it becomes more difficult to change the attitudes of poor readers as they progress in school (Butkowsky & Willows, 1980; Dweck & Bemphechat, 1983). Since the classroom teacher stated that the students had begun to check-out books from the library, volunteer to read aloud, and mention titles of books that they wanted to read, it may be that the students were beginning to change their

attitudes about reading.

Since there was not a comparison group included in this study, the results are inconclusive. However, considering the fact that these were older students who had not experienced much success in prior school experiences, it is encouraging to find that they made significant gains while participating in an integrated language arts instructional program in several reading comprehension areas, word recognition skills, and oral reading performance at the independent level. These findings are important especially when considering that many times students enrolled in remedial reading classes do not make significant progress over the course of a school year. An integrated language arts approach may offer a viable alternative to the traditional, decoding approach which characterizes most remedial reading instruction. Further research is recommended to examine the longitudinal effects of such an approach on the reading performance of learning lab students.

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Table 1

Means and Standard Deviations of Reading Performance Measures

Measure[1]	Pre X	S.D.	Post X	S.D.	t	p
ERAS (Rec. Rdg.)	54.60	26.03	56.80	27.10	.53	.61
ERAS (Acad. Rdg.)	72.10	22.58	79.90	18.55	.90	.38
SORT (Word Recog.)	121.20	23.81	136.40	21.78	4.04	.01*
Oral Rdg. (Indep.)	.40	1.27	2.00	2.71	2.39	.04*
Oral Rdg. (Inst.)	2.20	2.35	4.80	2.78	2.11	.06
Silent Rdg. (Indep.)	.50	1.27	1.70	2.75	1.22	.25
Silent Rdg. (Inst.)	4.10	2.08	5.10	2.28	1.10	.29
Main Ideas	51.00	27.26	90.40	9.48	5.37	.01*
Recall of Facts	53.10	20.74	76.50	12.77	3.11	.01*
Vocabulary Dev.	50.30	14.81	64.80	16.03	3.77	.01*
Cause-Effect Relat.	47.60	22.51	64.00	20.51	2.06	.07
Inferential Rdg.	50.70	21.04	78.70	18.49	4.50	.01*
Drawing Conclusions	50.30	32.54	77.10	27.54	2.61	.03*

N = 10, df = 9

*p = < .05

[1]ERAS = Elementary Reading Attitude Survey
SORT = Slosson Oral Reading Test (revised)

FEATURE PROJECT

The Old West

What would you think if you walked into a classroom and found yourself stepping into another time or place, much like being on a movie set complete with dwellings, scenery, lighting, furnishings, props, costumes, and makeup? Picture your classroom as an "Old West" town, with your students "living" in this setting.

Students enjoy becoming characters in a different place and time. They also learn more if they are allowed to research background information, recreate actual scenes, and then immerse themselves in the everyday activities of that world. By reliving the Old West, students increase their knowledge of this time period and enhance their language development. Although they remain in a modern classroom, their imaginations will work wonders.

Students take full responsibility for planning, constructing, furnishing, and maintaining their Old West environment. The teacher, whose role is like that of a producer of a movie or the city manager of a small town, helps plan, obtain materials, and build and maintain the environment.

Objects brought to class by the students are common and ordinary to the average household. These materials may include wood, cardboard, nails, furniture, lights, boxes, old clothes. Some of the desired objects are not as common, but they may be available to some students. Or, students could devise copies of the actual objects. As parents become involved with helping their children collect or construct items for the study unit, closer ties develop between home and school.

During a long unit on the Old West, a section of the room can be transformed each week into a different building or setting. Here are some scenes for students to create:

1. A stable complete with bales of straw, saddles, horse blankets, bridles, halters, horseshoes, buckets of feed, and pails of water. Drawings and pictures of horses are put on signs the students make to advertise horses for sale or rent (with prices based on students' research). Certain students become stable hands who take care of business at the barn.
2. A hotel office containing a desk and chair, a mailbox for keys and letters, and a desk ledger to register visitors. An adjoining hotel room might include a cot made from two desks covered with a sheet and blanket, a towel and washbowl, and a chair.
3. A restaurant made from tables and desks. The tables are set with place mats made by the students, secondhand dishes, silverware, and drinking glasses. The chalkboard behind the tables advertises specials for the day. These change regularly as do the cooks, waiters, and customers. Customers read through a student-made menu offering such Old West favorites as flapjacks, potato soup, spoon bread, and ham and eggs.
4. A mine in which students may dig for gold or a stream where they pan for gold. The gold may be taken to the bank and exchanged for currency, or it may be used to barter for food or other goods.
5. A Conestoga wagon made from an art table covered with hoops and an old sheet. The wagon is drawn by a horse made of wood or cardboard (or a toy horse may be brought from home).
6. A sheriff's office made from an old refrigerator box. A small desk holds legal records, and there is a ring of keys hanging from a hook. To aid in the capture of desperadoes, "wanted" posters are made and hung around the room. Next to the sheriff's office is another box that serves as a jail cell. Inside the box are bedding and a few utensils, and there are bars on the window.
7. A general store containing shelves of merchandise and a clothesline from which are hung bonnets, scarves, hats, or coonskin caps. Candles are offered for sale, as are boots, vests, shirts, and other items of cloth-

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ing. There are real nuts, potatoes, and onions sold by the pound and weighed on a scale. Sale items also include ribbon and calico to be measured by the yard and buttons to be counted.

8. A doctor's office, which gives children a chance to write diagnoses of ailments and prescriptions. The examining table is covered with a sheet, and nearby are bandages, slings, and a thick reference book. The pharmacy fills the prescriptions with raisins or small pieces of candy.
9. A one-room schoolhouse containing several desks. Assignments are written on slates, and students must share a small collection of textbooks. In one corner is a potbellied stove.
10. A one-room cabin for a Western family. In the center is a woodstove made from a large box and used for both cooking and heating. Nearby shelves hold kitchen utensils and storage containers for flour, sugar, and other staples. Meals are served on a small table or desk covered with a plaid cloth. Articles of clothing hang from hooks or a clothesline. Two or three cots made from boxes or desks are covered with sheets and blankets. A small box with a blanket inside is a baby's cradle and contains a doll, possibly an old one. A few chairs are positioned near the woodstove, and small rag rugs cover the floor. A sewing basket holds fabric, scissors, thread, and needles. There is a small shelf of books, and hanging on the walls or standing in the corner are a broom, a banjo, and a rifle.

Transforming the classroom into the Old West provides endless opportunities for writing, speaking, listening, and reading in areas of math, science, social studies, history, geography, music, and art. Some of the possible classroom activities are listed on the Old West chart.

It is important that the Old West environment be as authentic as possible, both in the structure of the room and in the information the students collect. They are able to "experience" this time period through cooking foods from the era, hearing and reading stories set in these times, watching films and television shows, hearing speakers, taking trips to historical places, sewing and making articles used long ago, and writing about the times in a diary or for an Old West newspaper. When students become a newspaper editor, a sheriff, a patient, or a storekeeper, they can write or talk from that point of view. They feel they are not inventing an account of someone else's experience; they are writing or talking from their own experience.

Pat Blume, Windermere Elementary School, Columbus, Ohio

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Research Currents: A Lot of Talk About Nothing

Shirley Brice Heath

Department Editors' Note: A central theme in elementary language education is the interrelatedness of the language arts and, indeed, of the language arts and the entire curriculum. Researchers are seeking to define more precisely the connections between reading, writing, listening, and speaking. And, although this topic has received less attention, the ways in which both oral and written language help us learn are also of current interest, as noted in previous columns. Shirley Brice Heath, this month's guest columnist, is rare in that her work provides insight into both these concepts of integration.

Heath is rare too in that she has gone beyond describing the problems in education to enlisting the assistance of caring teachers in alleviating those problems. Her own experience as a primary and secondary school teacher and her collaborative work with teachers as co-researchers have no doubt contributed to her identification with teachers and her belief in their capacity to make positive changes in children's lives.

Heath is an anthropologist, linguist, social historian, and student of American literature. She is at present Associate Professor of Anthropology and Linguistics in the School of Education at Stanford University. The contents of this guest column are based on research by Heath published in full in *Ways with Words: Language, Life, and Work in Communities and Classrooms* (Cambridge, England and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1983). Shorter portions of the research are reported in "What No Bedtime Story Means: Narrative Skills at Home and School," *Language in Society II* (1982): 49–76 and "Questioning at Home and at School: A Comparative Study," in *Doing the Ethnography of Schooling: Educational Anthropology in Action*, edited by G. Spindler (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1982).

Inside a third grade classroom described by the principal as a class of "low achievers," several pairs of children are working over tape recorders in dialogues with each other. One small group of children is dressed in costumes performing "Curious George" scenes for a few kindergarteners who are visiting. Yet another group is preparing illustrations for a story told by one of their classmates and now being heard on tape as they talk about why their drawings illustrate the words they hear. A lot of talk about nothing? Why are these children who presumably lack basic skills in language arts not spending their time with obvious instruction from the teacher in reading, writing, and listening?

These are students in the classroom of a teacher-researcher who has adapted information about the oral and written language experiences of these children

at home into a new language arts curriculum for school. She has developed for her children a program in which they spend as much of the day as possible talking—to each other and the teacher, and to fifth and sixth graders who come into the class one-half hour each day to read to small groups. This teacher has thirty children and no aides; she enlisted the help of fifth and sixth grade teachers who were willing to have some of their students write stories for the younger children and read to them several days of each week. The kindergarten teacher helps out by sending a few of her children for the third graders to read to each week.

Talk in the classroom is about personal experiences, stories, expository textbook materials, and, perhaps most important, about their own and others' talk. Their teacher gives no reading or writing task which is not surrounded by talk about the content knowledge behind the task and the kinds of language skills—oral and written—needed to taskle the task.

Since the beginning of the year, the teacher has asked visitors from the community into her class to talk about their ways of talking and to explain what they read and write at home and at work. The children have come to think of themselves as language "detectives," listening and learning to describe the talk of others. Grocery clerks have to use many politeness terms, and the questions they ask most often of customers require only a yes or no answer. On the other hand, guides at the local nature museum talk in "long paragraphs," describing what is around them and usually asking questions only at the end of one of their descriptions. The children have also learned to analyze their talk at home, beginning early in the year with a simple record of the types of questions they hear asked at home, and moving later in the year to interviews with their parents about the kinds of talking, reading, and writing they do at their jobs.

The teacher in this classroom comments on her own talk and the language of textbooks, of older students, and of the third graders themselves during each day. "Show and tell" time, usually reserved for only first graders, occurs each day in this class, under the supervision of a committee of students who decide each week whether those who participate in this special time of the day will: (1) narrate about an experience they or someone else has had, (2) describe an event or object without including themselves or another animate being, or (3) read from their diary or journal for a particular day. The children use terms such as *narrative*, *exposition*, and *diary* or *journal* with ease by the end of the year. Increasingly during the year, the children use "show and tell" time to talk, not about their own direct experiences, but about content areas of their classroom. Also by the end of the year, the children are using this special time of the day for presenting skits about a social studies or science unit. They have found that the fifth and sixth graders can offer assistance on these topics, and planning such a presentation guarantees the attention of the upper classmen. By the end of the year, most of these children score above grade level on reading tests, and they are able to write stories, as well as paragraphs of exposition on content areas with which they feel comfortable in their knowl-

edge. This is clearly no longer a class of "low achievers."

Teachers as Researchers

All of these ideas sound like pedagogical practices which many good teachers bring intuitively to their instruction. What was different about the motivations of this third grade teacher for approaching language arts in these ways? The teacher described here was one of a group of teacher-researchers who cooperated with me for several years during the 1970s. I worked as an ethnographer, a daily participant and observer in homes and communities similar to those of the children in their classrooms, studying the ways in which the children learned to use oral and written language. As I studied the children at home, the teachers focused on their own language uses at home and in the classroom. We brought our knowledge together for comparison and as the baseline data from which to consider new methods and approaches in language arts.

We do not need educational research to tell us that different types of attention spans, parental support systems, and peer pressures can create vast differences among children in the same classroom, school, or community. But what of more subtle features of background differences, such as the amount and kind of talk addressed by adults to children and solicited from children? How can teachers and researchers work together to learn more about children's language experiences at home? And what can this knowledge mean for classroom practice?

For nearly a decade, living and working in three communities located within a few miles of each other in the southeastern part of the United States, I collected information on ways in which the children of these communities learned to use language. (1) Roadville is a white working-class community. (2) Trackton is a black working-class community in which many of the older members have only recently left work as sharecroppers on nearby farms. (3) The townspeople, black and white residents of a cluster of mainstream, school-oriented neighborhoods, are schoolteachers, local business owners, and executives of the textile mills.

Children from the three groups respond differently to school experiences. Roadville children are successful in the first years of the primary grades. Most Trackton children are not successful during this period, and only a few begin in the higher primary grades to move with adequate success through their classes. Most of the mainstream children of the townspeople, black and white, are successful in school and obtain a high school diploma with plans to go on to higher education. Children from backgrounds similar to those of these three groups make up the majority of the students in many regions of the southeastern United States. They bring to their classrooms different patterns of learning and using oral and written language, and their patterns of academic achievement vary greatly.

Intuitively, most teachers are aware of the different language background experiences children bring to school, but few means exist for providing teachers with information about these differences and their implications for classroom practice. Recent development of the notion of *teacher-as-researcher*

has begun to help bridge the long-standing gap between researcher and teacher. This approach pairs the roles of teacher and researcher in a cooperative search for answers to questions raised by the teacher about what is happening in the classroom and why. Answering *why* questions more often than not calls for knowledge about the background experiences of both children and teachers. Thus, researcher working with teacher can help bridge yet another gap—that between the classroom and the homes of students.

Throughout most of the decade of the 1970s, I worked in the Piedmont Carolinas with teachers in several districts as research partners. Together we addressed the questions teachers raised during the sometimes tumultous early years of desegregation and ensuing shifts of curricular and testing policies. These teachers accepted the fact that language was fundamental to academic achievement, and their primary concerns related to how they could help children learn to use oral and written language in ways that would bring successful classroom experiences. They asked hard questions of language research. Why were some children seemingly unable to answer straightforward questions? Why were some students able to give elaborate directions and tell fantastic stories on the playground, but unable to respond to assignments calling for similar responses about lesson materials? Why did some children who had achieved adequate success in their first two or three years of school begin to fail in the upper primary grades?

In the 1960s, social scientists had described the language habits of groups of youngsters who were consistently failing to achieve academic excellence. The teachers with whom I worked were familiar with these studies, which had been carried out primarily in black urban areas. Most accepted the fact that children who spoke a nonstandard variety of English had learned a rule-governed language system and, moreover, that these students reflected learned patterns of "logic," considerable facility in handling complicated forms of oral discourse, and adeptness in shifting styles. But knowing this information about language learned at home did not answer the kinds of questions noted above about classroom performance. Neither did it provide for development of improved classroom materials and practices.

Ethnography of Communication

Late in the 1970s, as some language researchers tried to describe the contexts in which children of different cultures learned to use language, they turned to ethnographic methods. Participating and observing over many months and even years in the daily lives of the group being studied, these researchers, who were often anthropologists, focused on oral and written language uses. My work in Roadville, Trackton, and among the townspeople centered on the children of these groups as they learned the ways of acting, believing, and valuing around them in their homes and communities. Following the suggestions of anthropologist Dell Hymes, who first proposed in 1964 that ethnographers focus on communication, I lived and worked within these three groups to describe where, when, to whom, how, and with what results children were

socialized as talkers, readers, and writers. The three communities—located only a few miles apart—had radically different ways of using language and of seeing themselves in communication with their children.

Roadville parents believe they have to teach their children to talk, and they begin their task by talking with infants, responding to their initial sounds as words. They respond with full sentences, varying their tone of voice and emphasis, and affectionately urging infants to turn their heads in the direction of the speaker. As they talk to their infants and young children, they label items in the environment, and as children begin to talk, adults ask many teaching questions: "Where's your nose?" "Can you find Daddy's shoe?" Adults fictionalize their youngsters in talk about them: "He's a little cowboy; see those boots? See that cowboy strut." Parents read to their children and ask them to name items in books, answer questions about the books' contents, and, as they get older, to sit quietly listening to stories read to them. Parents buy coloring and follow-the-number books for their children and tutor them in staying within the lines and coloring items appropriately. All of these habits relate to school practices, and they are transferred to the early years of reading and writing in school. Yet, by the fourth grade many of these children seem to find the talking, reading, and writing tasks in school foreign, and their academic achievement begins to decline.

In nearby Trackton, adults immerse their children in an ongoing stream of talk from extended family members and a wide circle of friends and neighbors. Children become the responsibility of all members of the community, and from birth they are kept in the center of most adult activities, including eating, sleeping, or playing. Adults talk about infants and young children, and as they do so, they fictionalize them and often exaggerate their behaviors and physical features. They nickname children and play teasing games with them. They ask young children for specific information which is not known to adults: "Where'd that come from?" "You want what?" By the time they are toddlers, these children begin to tell stories, recounting events or describing objects they have seen. Adults stop and listen to their stories occasionally, but such stories are most often addressed to other children who challenge, extend, tease, or build from the youngsters' tales. By about age two, children begin to enter ongoing conversations by actively attracting adults' attention with some physical gesture and then making a request, registering a complaint, or reporting an event. Very quickly, these children are accepted as communicating members of the group, and adults respond directly to them as conversational partners.

Most of these children first go to school with enthusiasm, but by the end of the first half of the first grade, many are coming home with reports that their teacher scolds them for talking too much and working too little. By the third grade, many Trackton children have established a record of failures which they often do not break in the rest of their school careers.

After hearing from me how children of these communities learned to use language, some of their teachers agreed to work with me to study either their

own uses of language with their preschoolers at home or those of their mainstream friends. They found that when talking to very young infants, they asked questions, simplified their sentences, used special words, and changed their tone of voice. Moreover, since most of these mainstream mothers did not work outside the home while their children were very young, they spent long hours each day alone with their preschoolers as their primary conversational partners. They arranged many outings, usually with other mothers through voluntary associations, such as their church groups or local social memberships.

These teachers' findings about mainstreamers' uses of language with their preschoolers indicated that they and the Roadville parents had many language socialization habits in common. Parents in both communities talked to their children and focused their youngsters' attention at an early age on labels, pictures in books, and educational toys. Both groups played with their children and participated in planned outings and family recreation with them. Yet mainstream children and Roadville children fared very differently in their progress through the middle primary grades.

A close look at the home habits of these two groups indicated that a major difference lay in the amount of running narrative or ongoing commentary in which mainstream parents immersed their young children. As these youngsters pass their first birthday, mothers and other adults who are part of their daily network begin to provide a running commentary on events and items surrounding the child. In these commentaries, adults tell the child what is happening: "Mommy's going to ger her purse, and then we're going to take a ride. Mommy's got to go to the post office." As soon as the child begins to talk, adults solicit these kinds of running commentaries: they ask children what they are doing with their toys, what they did when they were at someone else's house, and what they had to eat on a trip to the grocery story. These requests for running descriptions and cumulative accounts of past actions provide children in these families with endless hours of practice of all the sentence-level features necessary to produce successful narratives or recounts of experiences.

In using their own experiences as data, children begin their developmental progression of story conventions and narrative structures which they will be asked to replay in school from the first day of school through their college courses. They learn either to use an existing animate being or to create a fantastic one as the central actor in their stories; they take these actors through events in which they may meet obstacles on their way to a goal. The scripts of the stories that the children have heard read to them and the narratives that have surrounded them and storied their own and others' experiences are replayed with different actors and slightly different settings. Gradually children learn to open and close stories, to give them a setting and movement of time, and occasionally, even to sum up the meaning of the story in a moralistic pronouncement ("He shouldn't have gone without his mother"). Some children move from linking a collection of events related to one another only by their immediacy of experience for the child to tying a story

together by incorporating a central point, a constant goal or direction, and a point of view which may not be that of the child as experiencer and narrator.

When children are very young toddlers, parents both talk of and ask children about events of the here-and-now: the immediate tasks of eating, getting dressed, and playing with a particular toy or person. Of older toddlers, adults increasingly ask questions about events which occurred in the past—tasks, settings, and events which the child is expected to recount from memory. These recountings are, however, then interpreted by adults or older siblings in a future frame: "Do you want to go again?" "Do you think Billy's mother will be able to fix the broken car?" Questioners ask children to express their views about future events and to link past occurrences with what will come in the future.

In many ways, all of this is "talk about nothing," and adults and older siblings in these mainstream households model and elicit these kinds of narratives without being highly conscious of their having a didactic purpose or a heavily positive transfer value to school activities. Yet when teacher-researchers examined closely the instructional situations of the classrooms into which these children usually go, they found that, from first grade reading circles to upper primary social studies group work, the major activity is producing some sort of commentary on events or objects. In the early primary years, teachers usually request commentary in the form of labels or names of attributes of items or events ("What did the boy in our story find on his walk?"). Later, the requests are for descriptive commentary ("Who are some community helpers? What kinds of jobs do they do for us?"). Gradually the requests are mixed and students have to learn when it is appropriate to respond with labels or features (brief names or attributes of events or objects), fantastic stories, straightforward descriptions, or interpretations in which they comment on the outcome of events, the relative merits of objects, or the internal states of characters.

A Closer Look

On the surface, these summaries of the early language socialization of the children from these three communities support a commonly held idea about links between language at home and at school: the more parents talk to their children the more likely children are to succeed in school. Yet the details of the differences and similarities across these three communities suggest that this correlation is too simple. Trackton children hear and take part in far more talk around them than the children of either Roadville or the townspeople. Yet, for them, more talk does not have a positive transfer value to the current, primary-level practices of the school. Roadville children have less talk addressed to them than the townspeople's children. Yet, from an early age, they are helped to focus on labels and features of items and events. They are given books and they are read to by parents who buy educational toys for their children and spend many hours playing with their toddlers. As the children grow older, these parents involve their children in handicrafts, home building projects, and family recreational activities such as camping and fishing.

Both Trackton and Roadville parents have strong faith in schooling as a positive value for their children, and they believe success in school will help their children get jobs better than those they have held as adults. Yet neither Roadville nor Trackton children manage to achieve the same pattern of sustained academic success children of townspeople achieve with relatively little apparent effort. Why?

A primary difference seems to be the amount of "talk about nothing" with which the townspeople surround their children and into which they socialize their young. Through their running narratives, which begin almost at the birth of the child, they seemingly focus the attention of their young on objects and events while they point out verbally the labels and features of those which the child should perceive and later talk about. It is as though, in the drama of life, these parents freeze scenes and parts of scenes repeatedly throughout each day. Within the frame of a single scene, they focus the child's attention, sort out labels to name, and give the child ordered turns for sharing talk about these labels and the properties of the objects or events to which they refer; adult and child thus jointly narrate descriptions of scenes. Through this consistent focus, adults pull out some of the stimuli in the array surrounding the child and make these stand still for cooperative examination and narration between parent and child. Later occurrences of the same event or object are identified by adults who call the child's attention to similarities and differences. Thus townspeople's children are not left on their own to see these relations between two events or to explore ways of integrating something in a new context to its old context. These children learn to attend to items both in real life and in books, both in and out of their usual locations, as they practice throughout their preschool years running narratives with adults.

In much of their talk, mainstream adults ask "What do you call that?" "Do you remember how to say the name of that?" Thus children are alerted to attend to the particulars of talk about talk: names, ways of retelling information, and ways of linking what one has told with something which has gone before. Thus, mainstreamers' children hear a lot of talk about talk and are forced to focus on not only the features and names of the world around them, but also on their ways of communicating about that world. From the earliest days of their infancy, these habits are modeled repeatedly for them, and as soon as they learn to talk, they are called upon to practice similar verbal habits. Day in and day out during their preschool years, they hear and practice the kinds of talk in which they will display successful learning in school.

The teacher in the third grade classroom described at the beginning of this paper recognized that her students needed intense and frequent occasions to learn and practice those language uses they had not acquired at home. She, therefore, created a classroom which focused on talk—all kinds of talk. The children labeled, learned to name the features of everyday items and events, told stories, described their own and others' experiences, and narrated skits, puppet shows, and slide exhibits.

Many classrooms include such activities for portions of the day or week;

others provide some of these activities for some children. A critical difference in the case given here, however, and one driven by a perspective gained from being part of a research team was the amount of talk about talk in this classroom. School-age children are capable of—and can be quite proficient at—stepping back from and commenting upon their own and others' activities, *if* the necessary skills are modeled and explicated. In this classroom, and in others which drew from ethnographic data on the home life of their students, teachers and visitors to the classroom called attention to the ways they used language: how they asked questions, showed politeness, got what they wanted, settled arguments, and told funny stories. With early and intensive classroom opportunities to surround learning with many different kinds of talk and much talk about talk, children from homes and communities whose uses of language do not match those of the school CAN achieve academic success. A frequently heard comment, "Talk is cheap," is, in these days of bankrupt school districts and economic cutbacks, perhaps worth a closer examination—for more reasons than one.

Call for Presentations

Computers and Literacy Commission
NATE Conference, University of Durham, England
April 16–19, 1984

This international commission will convene at the annual conference of the UK National Association for the Teaching of English. Researchers, classroom teachers, teacher trainers, software developers, and other interested parties are invited to submit proposals for presentations on any aspect of the topic Computers and Literacy.

Proposal forms may be obtained from the Commission Leader, Daniel Chandler, 8 Burnet, Stantonbury 1, Milton Keynes, Bucks, MK14 6AJ England. Conference capacity is limited and early applications are advised.

Further details about the conference as a whole can be obtained from the Conference Officer, Peter Harris, Queen Elizabeth 6th Form College, Vane Terrace, Darlington, Cleveland, England.

WHOLE LANGUAGE
NOT THE SUM OF ITS PARTS

CATSKILL WHOLE LANGUAGE CONFERENCE

Speaker: Charles R. Chew, Ed.D
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One cannot be involved in language arts instruction and not have a developed guilt complex. I have been in this work for thirty years, and thought I wrote rather well. Then along came the writing process, and I learned that I had to pass through a number of stages as a writer. In addition, I needed to share what I had written with others either through a writing group or a peer conference.

I have always considered myself a good reader and one who has read widely. Then, the professional literature informed me that it really takes two to read a book.

I came to this conference with a history of experiences in language arts, only to find if you are involved with whole language you need to be able to sing in addition to a number of other things.

On a more serious note, I want to thank you for the invitation to address this conference at one of its general sessions, and I want to begin this afternoon by asking you a few questions.

How many teach spelling and/or vocabulary development?

How many teach subject/verb agreement, capitalization, and punctuation?

How many teach reading, writing, and listening/speaking?

How many teach thinking skills?

How many teach literature?

However, this begun revolution will come to nothing if we do not grasp the moment and begin to look at language arts and the way it is taught in a much different way.

Essential to language arts instruction is the fact that language must be used and practiced in all its forms. Most children come to us using language and knowing something.

Young children know how to use language for a purpose and how to differentiate its use according to the audience. Anyone who doubts this needs only to observe how children approach their mother with a request and then their father with the same request, and those of use who have reached the grandparenting stage see this same phenomena repeated when grandchildren ask Mommy and then ask Grandmom.

We know that children have experiences which we need to capitalize on and if they do not have wide experiences or some which we deem necessary, then we as professionals need to work to

expand their experiences. You can't tap prior knowledge if kids don't have it, so one of our main responsibilities is to see to it that children have ways to build that prior knowledge base.

The classroom must be a literate environment--rich in books, trade books and books authored by students and teachers. In addition, children need access to a library--school and community. They must be encouraged to browse among the books, touch them, look at them, and feel free not to complete something started if it does not meet their needs.

Children do not always have to read at or above grade level. In fact, how many of you spend the majority of your time reading at your grade level? I delight in the idea that I can at times read far below mine and enjoy every minute of the experience. Encourage reading, no matter at what level!

The idea that a quiet classroom is a classroom where learning takes place may not necessarily be true. In fact, I believe that a classroom devoid of language interaction may be disastrous to our children if one of our goals is to develop students who are active language users, because large numbers of our children come from homes where language use is not a central activity.

Latch key children, single parent children, and children glued to the television may not be receiving the experiences associated with language growth--opportunities to sit together to share the day's experiences, to question, and to discuss these experiences--may not be possible for many segments of our population.

I want to insist that much of your time spent in the classrooms has to be in oral language--not only as speakers which as teachers we're all so good at, but better still, as listeners and ones who instigate opportunities for students to share with each other, us, and whenever possible across grade levels.

Some of you are now saying but Charlie--I have to teach writing skills, reading skills, spelling and all the rest, after all the State is breathing down my neck with the threat of the DRP, the 5th grade writing test, the PCT, RCT--to say nothing of the English Regents; and if there aren't state mandated tests, then there are those mandated by the district.

I know this is a dilemma, and I want to offer a suggestion or two along those lines in a minute. Now I want to suggest some of the ways that I think the different segments of language arts can be brought together.

Process

The recent discussion of and the implementation of the writing process in our classrooms today provides the groundwork

for developing and integrating language arts program for several reasons. Let's review in a general way the writing process as detailed and accepted in much of the professional discussion today.

We seem to agree that the writer goes through several stages in order to produce a finished product--pre-writing (getting ready), drafting (getting it down), revising (changing and rearranging), editing (polishing for another's eye), and publishing (sharing). We know that a writer does not move through this process in a linear fashion but rather may be involved in the process in a recursive manner which permits movement back and forth between and among stages. Such action depends upon need, self-generated or required by an outside demand. We have learned that individual authors do not move through the various states in the same way and do not have the same needs or style; however, we have come to accept the idea that the stages are important as the writer moves toward an end product.

I now want to discuss these stages and show the similarities and crossovers to reading, speaking and listening.

Prewriting (Getting Ready)

The writer prepares for the task and can do so in a number of ways. These include but are not limited to: reading, note taking, questioning, interviewing, free-writing, reworking previous material, brainstorming, mapping and webbing, discussing, researching, thinking, dreaming, and drawing. The writer may begin to make some initial determinations about purpose, form, and audience, but at this point there may not be major determinants of what is yet to follow. Several researchers suggest that the mere act of writing will determine for the writer what is to be said.

Whatever is included in this prewriting stage, we all agree that the majority of writers will do some of the above in order to move along in the process. For you, the teacher, the opportunity to integrate rests in the fact that the reader, listener, and speaker also pass through a similar "getting ready" stage and such knowledge can be valuable information as you look at ways to enhance instruction.

The reader gets ready to read and one should find ways to focus on this aspect of reading in order to produce more able readers. As readers, do we not capitalize on prior knowledge? Don't we raise questions about the forthcoming text? Preview materials? Make predictions? Begin to consider the purpose of the text and its meaning to us?

Also, doesn't the listener/speaker go through a getting ready stage? Even with the most casual of conversations, the listener/speaker draws upon prior knowledge/familiarity of the

context, manner of speech, and mentally raises questions to be answered or predicts directions in which the communication will go.

In more formal listening/speaking situations the parallel of this stage is more apparent. The listener commences with prior knowledge and questions to be answered. The listener begins to integrate what is heard with what is known or predicted would come, making some determination of the speaker's purpose and intent.

For a more formal speaking situation, the speaker may well go through exactly the same type of preparation as does the author.

Drafting and Revising (Getting It Down and Changing It)

These two stages are best discussed together for the purpose of showing similarities among the various language arts segments in process. The writer begins to write sustained discourse, letting the words flow unimpeded by a need for correctness as does the reader whose eyes begin to move quickly across the page. The notion of purpose, form, and audience begins to emerge, and for the writer the product begins to take shape in its roughest form. At this stage, language is explored, words chosen, and sentences formed. Meaning starts to emerge. No different for the reader, listener, and speaker.

The listener tries to take in as much of the language as possible-connecting one thought to the next and mentally trying to link what is being said with what is known and what may be expected. Those preparing a formal speech may pass through the same process as the writer and even those who speak formally in an extemporaneous manner in all likelihood pass through similar steps.

In order to bring the piece to completion, the writer in most cases will revise what has been written during the drafting stage. Here the writer may eliminate, rearrange, elaborate, or change what has been written. New words may be chosen, sentences reordered, or ideas joined and expanded as the piece takes on purpose, form, and consideration is given to the audience.

In such a stage available to the reader, the listener? I believe it is. The reader certainly does not physically reorder the text, but mentally doesn't the reader revise? Predictions may be altered, new questions formulated. Sections of the text may be reread or paragraphs or sentences mentally eliminated as the reader attempts to find meaning in the written words.

The listener may be engaged in the same process, reformulating what has been heard and making connections to prior knowledge or questions yet to be answered.

Editing (Polishing It For Another's Eye)

At this stage, the writer imposes the conventions of language on his or her product. Correct spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and acceptable usage are brought to bear on the written text. The speaker differs in the necessity of imposing these conventions as the speech is prepared or produced. The speaker has as aids intonation, body language, audience reaction (enabling perhaps on-the-spot revision), and the pause. The listener may not necessarily impose editing but is certainly assisted by the speaker's use of those listed above. Likewise, the reader can more easily obtain meaning from the text through these conventions and may in fact impose mentally some of his own on the text.

Publishing (Sharing)

The final stage of the process is publishing-making what has been relatively private, public. This stage does not necessarily have to be elaborate or formal and can range from pieces on the bulletin board to published books, but the idea is the sharing of what has been written with an audience-the act of communication.

Many of us in the profession have only now come to realize that this act is also necessary to ensure the comprehensibility of text, and it has been stated that it takes two to read a book. Obviously the speaker is engaged in this final stage more often than not, but the case for similarities on the part of the listener are a little more difficult to discern. Perhaps that is because we do not often require the listener to share in much the same way that we are beginning to require of the reader. Now I cannot go through each of my other suggested ways for integrating, but let me just touch on each briefly.

Content

We can integrate through content.

For content I can use a piece of literature and center all my language skills development around it, and I can do this at every grade level.

It doesn't make any difference if students are reading The Jolly Postman, Can I Keep Him, The Little Red Hen, Henry Huggins, Old Yeller, Stopping by the Woods, To Kill a Mockingbird, Song of Myself or Macbeth or if each student is reading a different text. I can connect all aspects of language arts to that text, and all of our activities will have it as a focus.

For content, I can mean theme and we have heard about themes in a number of workshops this week. I can take the theme of change and adapt it for any grade level.

Our listening, speaking, reading and writing, spelling, and

vocabulary can be connected to and intertwined with theme, and I believe we can expand to make our approach interdisciplinary.

For content, I could focus on a topic which I think is more restricted than theme. So I can have dwelling places, holidays, elections, and any number of others generated by you or your students around which I can organize my language arts program.

Skills

I believe we can integrate our program through skills if we begin to look at skills not in isolation and in a discrete manner. I am convinced that many use the drill--skill--workbook-grammar exercise approach not through ignorance, but as a management tool.

Suppose we look at a couple of skills that we might be interested in developing in our students.

Develop the topic with adequate and appropriate details. I know that I am interested in having writers develop this skill, but isn't there a connection to what I am doing in reading? What I should be doing in the areas of listening and speaking? Can I not carry it even beyond the language arts? Isn't the science lesson, the social studies investigation, the geometry proof dependent upon the same skill?

Another skill may be to develop the students' ability to solve problems or make decisions based on an interpretation of information. Isn't this the basis of what we are talking about as far as a process approach is concerned? Isn't the writing process and reading process a way of moving through a series of problems? Posing the problem, finding a solution, and moving forward. Isn't problem solving the basis of learning and a primary concern of living? Skills can and do bring together the language arts, if not the whole curriculum.

Well, you have been very patient as I have tried in perhaps a too elementary way to suggest ways to bring an integration to our language arts program, and you are still wondering, so, is the end result greater than the parts that I have talked about? I believe there is much to be gained, and let me cover just some aspects of what those gains may be.

I believe we can have a more interesting and valuable experience through these approaches, not only for the teacher but the student as well. I believe whole language can result in wholeness of community. One of the powers of the writing group can be a close knit group which understands and accepts the strengths and weaknesses of the members. If a diverging society ever needed ways to bring it closer together, it needs them now.

I believe the approaches we have heard about during this conference empower students; and if we begin in kindergarten and

continue through 12th grade giving students power with their language, we will no longer need to worry about the National Assessment of Educational Progress and its dire predictions of what our students cannot do.

I believe the approaches we have heard about during this conference empower the teacher as well, but they also demand a literate and a model professional. And so I ask you--How many books have you read this summer? If I stopped right now and asked each of you to turn to your neighbor and talk about a book you are presently reading or have just finished reading, would you be struck dumb?

When did you write last--not only in your journal--but when did you bring a piece to completion ready for sharing? As the teacher model, you are a lover of language--you read--you write. You have to work hard to mold your students in a similar image. You not only know the books of your profession but those of your children as well. How many have read Atwell, Hansen, Graves, Caulkins, Murray, and the list goes on? You are the authority in the classroom, so you must be in touch with the most recent discussions in your field.

How many of you have had to have the services of a surgeon in your lifetime? Would you think of going to such a person if that person had not done any professional reading for the past five years or better still, since graduating?

And now, just a quick word about tests. We are a test happy society--not only in school but in life as well. I do not know what the answer is, other than we must keep constantly in front of us the idea that tests are artificial. No test is real. Let me suggest just one step we could take (and I've already begun it at my level) to address the testing problem.

As a teacher begin to list each test that a student is required to take in your school--the type of test--when taken--how long it took. Let's begin to compile that list and show a composite profile of the tested child in our schools. With such a profile I believe we are strong enough to campaign for other ways of evaluating and other measures of accountability. I might also want to know the number of tests required by the local school districts--as compared to those required by the state. We might get some interesting results here. We can not make a strong case against testing if we do not have data, and I think we could begin to build our case by starting with what I have just suggested.

You need to take a look at the content of these tests and if there is any alignment with your program. I contend that if you have a strong, integrated language arts program your students will score well on the tests. You need to provide them with such a program and guarantee that they have a familiarity with the test format which makes them comfortable with the test. However,

to spend long periods of time (I have seen a semester spent getting students ready for the Regents) drilling students on the same types of discrete skills often found on these tests is, I believe, morally unconscionable.

As people involved in the language arts, you are the most important people in the school--forget what you hear about science, math, and foreign languages--because without facility with language, the student will not be successful in school and perhaps in life--that is a heavy burden of responsibility for you to carry, but I am certain after my experience here this week that you are capable of fulfilling that responsibility for the betterment of each child and our society as a whole.

INTEGRATING THE LANGUAGE ARTS FOR PRIMARY-AGE DISABLED READERS

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Children who attended the University of Missouri Child Study Clinic had an opportunity to participate in a program of reading instruction based upon a theory of the reading process developed by Kenneth S. Goodman. Goodman viewed reading as a meaning seeking process which has two characteristics. One is that the reader is attempting to get at meaning. The second is that he or she is using whole language to do so (Brenner, 1976). This whole -language comprehension-centered approach to the teaching of reading is rooted in the belief that children learn to read in as natural a way as they learn to speak.

Studies in language acquisition clearly indicate that children are endowed with an innate ability to learn language (Brown, 1973; Brown & Bellugi, 1964; Slobin, 1971) and that, based upon the speech they hear, they are able to construct the phonological, syntactic, and semantic rule systems of their language. Hoskisson (1979) points out that this process is not automatic but extends over a long period of time and takes the form of a series of grammars which have their own phonological, syntactic, and semantic components which gradually approximate the language of the adults in their environment. Adults reinforce language learning in children. Goodman stated, when parents respond to what their children are saying, language is being facilitated. Children soon realize that language is worthwhile because it gets them what they want and what they need. As children learn to speak in a natural way, they also learn to read naturally (Brenner, 1976).

Thus learning to read is an extension of natural language learning. It is Goodman's contention that reading, like language learning, becomes self-motivating if it is meaningful and functional. Therefore, reading must be presented to children as a productive and worthwhile experience.

Using the children's natural language abilities as a starting point, instruction in reading at the Child Study Clinic was integrated within a total language arts curriculum. Instructional strategies emphasized thea interrelationship of reading, writing, speaking, and listening. It was felt that if children were to expand their language learning, numerous opportunities would have to be provided so they could use their own natural language.

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both oral and written, to communicate. Thus expansion became a key component to the program. Teachers developed activities which served to enrich and broaden children's language concepts and experiences. These activities, in turn, generated many natural reading and writing experiences. For example, the oral language that the children used and heard daily was utilized as material for instruction rather than fragmenting language into bits and pieces, such as syllables or sounds. As a result no artificial exercises in recitation or drill were used.

To assist children in gaining meaning from print, instruction incorporated the three systems of language: the graphophonemic (sound-symbol relationships) system, the syntactic (grammatical structure) system, and the the semantic (meaning) system. Children were encouraged to use information from the integration of all three language systems and the isolated use of any one system was avoided. Since children read, wrote, and talked about the activities they participated in, reading became immediately meaningful and purposeful for them.

The following four components formed the bases for the language arts curricula. Each component was utilized daily.

Teaching Component One: Opportunities for discussion and spontaneous conversation.

Rationale: When a child has something to say, it is at that point that he or she is motivated to use language (Smith, Goodman and Meredith, 1976).

Although children were encouraged to freely express themselves at all times, the beginning minutes of each session were identified as an especially appropriate time to discuss personal news, such as: family activities, events that had occurred since the previous day, television programs, and individual interests. Children were also encouraged to ask questions, share experiences, and to listen as others talked. Teachers asked openended questions rather than questions calling for specific answers. Such questions allowed children to express their ideas, opinions and feelings. In addition, teachers served as models for language behaviors by:

—using language that was natural and situationally appropriate
—expanding and restating child utterances when appropriate
—listening attentively and showing interest when the children spoke

Teaching Component Two: Daily reading to the children.

Rationale: A child's ability to learn to read print will depend on his or her prior familiarity with written language, which can only be gained by being read to (Smith, 1979). Learning to raead naturally begins when children are read to at an early age and are allowed to handle books. Children who hear prose and poetry written in a variety of moods and styles are being prepared to encounter and enjoy the writings and styles of many different authors and to become authors themselves (Goodman and Watson, 1976).

Teachers read daily to students. They selected materials

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from a variety of sources: short stories, poetry, the children's section from a local newspaper, and chapters from books. Selection was made on the basis of stylistic merit and interest rather than on traditional readability factors, such as word frequency or sentence length. Once reading was established as a comfortable part of the morning routine, teachers encouraged the children to predict what might happen next in the story. In some instances, at the conclusion of the story, the children were asked to create a different ending for the story. The previous day's reading was frequently discussed, particularly when a long selection was read. Favorite stories were re-read. The teacher's reading frequently resulted in follow-up group activities such as: art project, cooking experiences, and writing.

Teaching Componet Three: Daily reading by both the children and their teachers.

Rationale: Reading is learned through reading. Children need adults as models: they will try to learn and understand what adults do, provided they see adults enjoying the activity (Smith, 1979).

For children to learn to read they must have an opportunity to interact with books (Brenner, 1976). Daily reading was accomplished through a Sustained Silent Reading Program (SSR). Guidelines for SSR were developed by McCracken (1971):

1. Each student must read silently
2. The teacher reads, and permits no interruption of his reading
3. Each student selects a single book (or magazine or newspaper)
4. A timer is used
5. There are absolutely no reports or records of any kind
6. Begin with whole classes or larger groups of students

A reading corner was designated and everyone gathered there to read during the silent reading time. A time was set initially for five minutes and gradually increased to fifteen minutes. Additional opportunities for reading were also available during the individual activities time (free time).

A system called Mine, Yours, and Ours (Goodman & Watson, 1976) was used for selecting the daily reading materials. The student's choice, without adult interference, was the Mine selection, while the Yours selection was made by the teacher. The Ours selection was one mutually agreed upon by the student and the teacher. This selection process was also used when the group made its weekly trips to the library to check out books. Rather than using traditional book reports, a simple bookkeeping system was used. On a 3 x 5 card each student wrote his or her name and the title of the book read. On the reverse side of the card the student answered two questions. The following is an example of the bookkeeping system used (next page):

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Front	Back
Your Name	Did you finish the book? yes no
Book Title	Did you like the book? yes no

This system enabled teachers to keep abreast of the students' daily reading. Children engaged in both oral and silent reading. During oral reading no attempt was made to correct children. Oral reading was used for pleasure and for communicating meaning to the listener.

Teaching Component Four: Daily writing by both the children and their teachers.

Rationale: As long as writing is a natural and purposeful activity which poses no threat, children will write and consequently will learn. Children will strive to make sense of writing in the same way they strive to make sense of any activity through the manner in which it satisfies purposes and achieves intentions (Smith, 1979).

The content of the writings was generally student initiated. No writing assignments were made by the teachers, although suggestions were given when appropriate. As in reading, the teachers served as models and they actively engaged in meaningful and purposeful writing themselves.

The writings were not graded or corrected and the children's spellings no matter how poorly executed were accepted and encouraged. The focus of the writings was on communication of these ideas and meanings, not on the mechanics of writing and correct spelling. Writings were always read. Teachers read the writings of children and encouraged children to read their own and each other's writings.

Language experience activities were utilized in various forms. The children dictated and wrote about field trips, cooking experiences, school activities, family events, week-end trips, and parties. The teacher wrote these dictations on charts that were placed on the walls. The children read, reread, and referred to them often.

Patterned after SSR, Sustained Silent Writing was also initiated. The writing was carried on by both teacher and student during the individual activities time. Discussion preceded the writing as boys and girls were helped to verbalize an idea that might become the topic of the writing. Writing about themselves was particularly encouraged.

Close communication between students, teachers, and parents was maintained throughout the duration of the program. Strategies were presented to parents to assist them in incorporating man of the daily teaching components into family activities. Parents were enouraged to:

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—read daily to their children

—write notes to their children

—involve their child in family discussion

and

—make weekly trips to the local public library

The following are examples of some of the activities used in the program:

Establish a class post office. Encourage children to send notes to each other. Teachers write a special note to each child weekly.

Bring the child's real world to the classroom by having children bring food and household products to set up a play grocery store. Students can make shopping lists, commercials, and stories about their store.

Provide cartoon strips without words so students can write their own dialogue.

Provide direct learning experience such as cooking, science experiments, nature walks, caring for plants and animals, etc. The activities can be incorporated into daily activities for talking, writing, and reading.

Include in the classroom many predictable books. Books are predictable if the child can predict what the author is going to say and how s/he will say it. Following is a sample listing of such books: The Three Billy Goats Gruff by Marcia Brown, Harcourt Brace and World, 1957.

Goodnight Moon by Margaret W. Brown, Harper and Row, 1947.

Drummer Hoff by Barbara & Ed Emberly, Prentice-Hall, 1967.

I Love You, Mouse by John Graham, Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1976.

The Fat Cat by Jack Kent, Scholastic Book Services, 1971.

One Sunday Morning by Uri Shulevitz, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1967.

Encourage children to write daily. Ideas for daily writing would include: charts, poems, short stories, captions, posters, books, journals, etc.

Have children select a partner for reading. They may take turns reading to each other using either the same selection or a different one.

Individuals from the community are invited to speak to the class on various topics. Student interests determine the guest and the topic.

As stated earlier, the emphasis of the program was to integrate the language arts curriculum for primary-age learning disabled children. The areas of listening, speaking, reading, and writing were never considered as isolated skills but as interrelated variables to language and learning.

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ERIC Digest

Language Across the Curriculum

by
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"Language across the curriculum" means basically two things. First, it means that gaining power in all the modes of language--writing, reading, speaking, and listening--must take place in every school course and at every school level, if this growth is to be deep and substantial. This meaning rejects the notion that the diverse uses of language are best learned in specific "skills" courses in, say, English or speech. Second, "language across the curriculum" stresses the interrelationship of the modes: One learns to write as one learns to speak as one learns to read and listen. Each ability, therefore, improves to the extent that all are exercised. This second meaning rejects the teaching of, for example, writing or reading in relative isolation from the other. Ultimately, these two meanings of language across the curriculum come together in a third: the inseparableness of language, thinking, and learning. If we do not apply the full range of our language resources to our learning of any subject, then we stifle thought, conscious and unconscious, and so deprive ourselves of more than the most superficial understanding.

History and Theory

Language across the curriculum is hardly a new idea. Teachers in every age have seen that learning flourishes in rich environments that regularly challenge students to manipulate ideas through writing and through talk between teacher and student, parent and child, peer and peer. Furthermore, it has probably never been doubted that the ability to communicate is profoundly connected

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to the desire to share and acquire knowledge. After all, teachers and textbook writers at all levels have tried to make language instruction "interesting." Model essays, speech and discussion topics, and even workbook sentences--all are presumably chosen (though not always successfully) to excite the wonder and curiosity of the student. Nevertheless, the very fact that so much has been done to fabricate a learning context for language instruction shows that "language across the curriculum," if not a new idea, was for a time submerged. Clearly, school curricula became divided--for various reasons--into "content" and "skills" courses, and educators created the circumstances out of which "language across the curriculum" would have to reemerge as a fresh concept.

Much credit for this resurgence belongs to the British Schools Council Project in Writing Across the Curriculum, which from the mid-1960s onward studied how writing--and talk--were learned and used in schools throughout the United Kingdom. In a series of books (e.g., Britton, 1970, and Martin et al, 1976), the Schools Council Project reported that the vast majority of school-based talking and writing was not "genuine communication," in which one person tries to convey new knowledge to another, but was mere giving back of information to the teacher in the role of judge. This "bogus" communication not only limited drastically the student's use of language, but produced dull, inauthentic responses. Conversely, when students were encouraged to write for audiences who would be interested in learning something new from the student (for example, readers of the school newspaper), researchers found the writing more lively and engagement with the topic more intense. Likewise, in language-rich classes, such as science labs where teams of students freely conversed in order to solve problems raised by an experiment, scripts showed that the give-and-take sparked varied language uses, including speculation and argument, plus the desire to repeat experiments or try new ones in order to answer new questions.

In the United States, Janet Emig (1977) reinforced the Schools Council conclusions by bringing to bear on the issue of language and learning the discoveries of linguistics and cognitive psychology. Vygotsky (1962), Kelly (1969), Bruner (1971), and Jaynes (1977) had found close correlation between verbalizing, in speech and writing, and the ability to assimilate perceptions. Particularly important was the recognition that language itself, whether read or heard, could be understood only if the individual translated the messages of others into his or her own words. Thus, conviction of the usefulness of language as a tool of learning grew.

Meanwhile, research on written composition began giving overwhelming evidence of the importance of talk in the development of writing ability. Britton (1967, 1975), in conceptualizing writing as a "process," defined "expressive writing," a form nearest to talk, as the matrix out of which more sophisticated written communication necessarily developed. He and other members of the Schools Council Project, as well as Moffett (1968), gave examples of classrooms in which the cultivation of many forms of discourse led to writing that showed fluency and awareness of audience. Writers such as Macrorie (1977) and Elbow (1973) demonstrated that talk <u>about</u> writing, especially within small groups of writers, could spark livelier, more coherent writing. Further studies of the speaking-writing connection have been brought together by Kroll and Vann (1981).

<u>Implications for Teaching: Faculty Training</u>

One meaning emphatically <u>not</u> implied by "language across the curriculum" is that the content area teacher must also become a specialist in the teaching of speech, a specialist in the teaching of writing, and so forth. What is required is that teachers look for ways to increase or vary the language

experiences that will help students understand and explore the subject matter of the course. As language-across-the-curriculum workshops continually demonstrate, teachers in every field are already creating language-rich environments. Most of their techniques can be applied rather easily by colleagues (Fulwiler and Young, 1982; Griffin, 1982; Thaiss, 1983).

Typically, these ideas and practices are disseminated through inservice workshops or institutes. Beginning in the 1970s, federal, state, and local sponsorship of faculty training programs, particularly at the college level, has encouraged language across the curriculum to proliferate in the United States, with special emphasis on the uses and improvement of writing. For K-12 teachers, leadership in language across the curriculum has been taken by the 102 sites of the National Writing Project, which has expanded its inservice network to include teachers in all fields. Summer seminars sponsored by the National Endowment for the Humanities at Beaver College (PA) have also contributed to the colleges-schools liaison in writing across the curriculum.

In the cross-curricular course conducted by the National Writing Project sites, faculty training occurs in two reinforcing ways: (1) NWP-trained teachers from different fields, for example, history and physics, conduct presentations on successful language-across-the-curriculum practices in their classrooms, and (2) class members practice writing-and-speaking-to-learn techniques, such as learning logs and focused small-group discussions, throughout the semester. Many such courses are set up for the faculty of a single school, to insure continuing exchange of ideas and often to initiate school-wide curriculum reforms. Though the contributions of language arts and English specialists are almost always important in these faculty-training programs, whether in colleges or schools, most programs are geared toward developing an interdisciplinary focus, with ongoing

leadership coming fro diverse departments.

Implications for Teaching: Techniques

In accordance with writing-process theory and the pioneering British research, the most successful language-and-learning-practices tend to promcte relatively unpressured expression, emphasizing techniques that encourage imagination and intuition. Journals and logs, small-group projects, teacher-student dialogues, and role playing are popular devices. Traditional content-area assignments such as research papers and laboratory reports are reinterpreted in terms of process theory, so that the research paper may become an "I-Search" project (Macrorie, 1980), with significant expressive writing and classroom interaction, while the lab report may be divided into steps--method, observations, analysis--each successive portion discussed by class groups.

Student journals of various types have been particularly powerful, and popular, learning tools. Regular writing to record or to analyze speculatively has long been practiced by professionals in many fields; thus, teachers tend to take readily to this form of instruction. In process terms, journals (often called learning logs, reader response logs, or any of a number of other names) encourage and teach expressive writing. Entries can also become the basis for more formal papers, when students' writing is carried through revision and editing stages. As a learning tool, the journal provides ample practice for translation of reading assignments or lectures, as well as labs and other kinds of experience, into the writer's own words; thus the journal can improve reading and listening comprehension (Wotring and Tierney, 1982).

Journals are also adaptable to more- or less-structured learning situations. Teachers can make the journal an open-ended daily or

weekly assignment, or they can use the journal for speculative answers to specific study questions. Some teachers ask students to sharply focus their entries on analysis of reading, lectures, or experiments; others want their students to exploit the journal's power as an emotional, psychological release (Progoff, 1975). Many use the journal, with entries voluntarily read aloud in class, as a spur to class discussion, while other teachers maintain a separate "journal dialogue" with each student in writing (Staton, 1984).

The teacher's response to and evaluation of journals, as of other popular language-across-the-curriculum devices, is crucial to their effectiveness. The Schools Council research gave early evidence that expressive writing, like oral brainstorming, would fail if teachers did not continually nurture students' risk-taking in analysis or speculation. Using the journal as a facts quiz or marking entries for mechanical errors would defeat its purpose. Guarding students' privacy, by allowing them to withhold certain entries and by never demanding that students read entries aloud, also seems essential. On the other hand, since teachers often find expressive forms new to their students, it is important to show students how to make the most of the freedom to interpret and imagine that these forms offer them.

Implications for Curriculum Change

In most schools and colleges with language-across-the-curriculum programs, change has meant more variety in how language is used and learning accomplished. Where language across the curriculum has affected school programs, this change has taken such forms as increases in team-taught courses, cooperative relationships among sections of English and sections of other subjects, or the use of "writing intensive" courses in content areas to fulfill composition requirements. In some instances it has meant the full interweaving of all language instruction into the learning of

such subjects as history, art, mathematics, and science. Full applications of language across the curriculum have been most smoothly undertaken in schools with a history of interdisciplinary planning and in the all-subjects classroom in the elementary grades. In whatever setting it occurs and however deeply it affects structure, language across the curriculum promotes the fruitful, invigorating exchange of perspectives and methods among teachers who all too often have been strangers across the curricular walls.

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A Product of the ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills
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1984

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Implications for Teaching: Faculty Training

One meaning emphatically *not* implied by language across the curriculum is that the content area teacher must also become a specialist in the teaching of speech, a specialist in the teaching of writing, and so forth. What is required is that teachers look for ways to increase or vary the language experiances that will help students understand and explore the subject matter of the course. As language-across-the-curriculum workshops continually demonstrate, teachers in every field are already creating language-rich environments. Most of their techniques can be applied rather easily by their colleagues (Fulwiler and Young 1982, Griffin 1982, Thaiss 1983).

Typically, these ideas and practices are disseminated through inservice workshops or institutes. Beginning in the 1970s, federal, state, and local sponsorship of faculty training programs, particularly at the college level, has encouraged language across the curriculum to proliferate in the United States, with special emphasis on the uses and improvement of writing. For K-12 teachers, leadership in language across the curriculum has been taken by the 102 sites of the National Writing Project, which has expanded its inservice network to include teachers in all fields. Summer seminars sponsored by the National Endowment for the Humanities at Beaver College (Penn.) have also contributed to the colleges-schools liaison in writing across the curriculum.

In the cross-curricular course conducted by the National Writing Project sites, faculty training occurs in two reinforcing ways: (1) NWP-trained teachers from different fields, for example, history and physics, conduct presentations on successful language-across-the-curriculum practices in their classrooms; and (2) class members practice writing-and-

speaking-to-learn techniques, such as learning logs and focused small-group discussions, throughout the semester. Many such courses are set up for the faculty of a single school, to insure the continuing exchange of ideas and often to initiate school-wide curriculum reforms. Though the contributions of language arts and English specialists are almost always important in these faculty-training programs, whether in colleges or schools, most programs are geared toward developing an interdisciplinary focus, with ongoing leadership coming from diverse departments.

Implications for Teaching: Techniques

In accordance with writing-process theory and the pioneering British research, the most successful language-and-learning practices tend to promote relatively unpressured expression, emphasizing techniques that encourage imagination and intuition. Journals and logs, small-group projects, teacher-student dialogues, and role playing are popular devices. Traditional content-area assignments such as research papers and laboratory reports are reinterpreted in terms of process theory, so that the research paper may become an "I-Search" project (Macrorie 1980), with significant expressive writing and classroom interaction, while the lab report may be divided into steps—method, observations, analysis—with each successive portion discussed by class groups.

Student journals of various types have been particularly powerful, and popular, learning tools. Regular writing to record or to analyze speculatively has long been practiced by professionals in many fields; thus, teachers tend to take readily to this form of instruction. In process terms, journals (often called learning logs, reader response logs, or any of a number of other names) encourage and teach expressive writing. Entries can also become the basis for more formal papers, when students' writing is carried through revision and editing stages. As a learning tool, the journal provides ample practice for translation of reading assignments or lectures, as well as labs and other kinds of experience, into the writer's own words; thus the journal can improve reading and listening comprehension (Wotring and Tierney 1982).

Journals are also adaptable to more- or less-structured learning situations. Teachers can make the journal an open-ended daily or weekly assignment, or they can use the journal for speculative answers to specific study questions. Some teachers ask students to sharply focus their entries on analysis of reading, lectures, or experiments; others want their students to exploit the journal's power as an emotional, psychological release (Progoff 1975). Many use the journal, with entries voluntarily read aloud in class, as a spur to class discussion, while other teachers maintain a separate "journal dialogue" with each student in writing (Staton 1984).

The teacher's response to and evaluation of journals, as of other popular language-across-the-curriculum devices, is crucial to their effectiveness. The Schools Council research gave early evidence that expressive writing, like oral brainstorming, would fail if teachers did not continually nurture students' risk taking in analysis or speculation. Using the journal as a facts quiz or marking entries for mechanical errors would defeat its purpose. Guarding students' privacy, by allowing them to withhold certain entries and by never demanding that students read entries aloud, also seems essential. On the other hand, since teachers often find expressive forms new to their students, it is important to show students how to make the most of the freedom to interpret and imagine that these forms offer them.

Implications for Curriculum Change

In most schools and colleges with language-across-the-curriculum programs, change has meant more variety in how language is used and learning accomplished. Where language across the curriculum has affected school programs, this change has taken such forms as increases in team-taught courses, cooperative relationships among sections of English and sections of other subjects, or the use of "writing intensive" courses in content areas to fulfill composition requirements. In some instances it has meant the full interweaving of all language instruction into the learning of such subjects as history, art, mathematics, and science. Full applications of language across the curriculum have been most smoothly undertaken in schools with a history of interdisciplinary planning and in the all-subjects classroom in the elementary grades. In whatever setting it occurs and however deeply it affects structure, language across the curriculum promotes the fruitful, invigorating exchange of perspectives and methods among teachers who all too often have been strangers across the curricular walls.

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ERIC

A Product of the ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills
1111 Kenyon Road, Urbana, Illinois 61801
1984

This publication was prepared with funding from the National Institute of Education, U.S. Department of Education, under contract no. 400-83-0025. Contractors undertaking such projects under government sponsorship are encouraged to express freely their judgment in professional and technical matters. Prior to publication, the manuscript was submitted to the Editorial Board of the National Council of Teachers of English for critical review and determination of professional competence. This publication has met such standards. Points of view or opinions, however, do not necessarily represent the official view or opinions of either the National Council of Teachers of English or the National Institute of Education.

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December 1989 DIGEST

Whole Language: Integrating the Language Arts—and Much More

by Betty Jane Wagner

One of the liveliest current grass-roots movements among teachers in the 1990s is the Whole Language approach. Support groups for teachers, Teachers Applying Whole Language (TAWL), have sprung up all over the country. Major conventions of the National Council of Teachers of English and the International Reading Association, as well as other conferences, include well-attended sessions and informal get-togethers of teachers who want to share their commitment to Whole Language.

This commitment on the part of teachers is reflected in Vermont's requirement that all new teachers have a Whole Language background. In 1987, New York State mandated teacher attendance at seminars on Whole Language concepts. Many foresee a Whole Language approach replacing reliance on the basal reader especially in California, largely because of the California Reading Initiative.

What Whole Language Is

Whole Language is a set of beliefs about how language learning happens and a set of principles to guide classroom practice (Goodman, 1986). These include:

- The function of language—oral and written—is to construct meaning (Altwerger, et al., 1987).
- Language is both personal and social. It serves thinking and communicating.
- Speaking, listening, reading, and writing are all learned best in authentic speech and literacy events. Learners achieve expressive and communication purposes in a genuine social context (Newman, 1985).
- The learner builds on prior knowledge and operates on ever-developing "hypotheses" about how oral and written language operate (Smith, 1983).
- Cognitive development depends on language development, and vice versa (Wells, 1986).
- Readers predict, select, confirm, and self-correct as they make meaning out of print; the goal is comprehension.
- Writers choose their own purposes as they write for various audiences (themselves, peers, teachers); the goal is to make sense out of their experience and imagination.
- Learning how to use language is accomplished as learners use language to learn about the world. The focus is on the subject matter (e.g. spiders, the Oregon Trail).

What Whole Language Is Not

The Whole Language movement is in part a reaction to a trend that has characterized for several decades much of educational practice, especially at the elementary school level. This practice has focused on the mastery of reading and writing skills, leaving little time in the school day for reading for pleasure or writing on topics of one's choice. Characteristics of this conventional belief system and practice are:

- Reading and writing are best broken down into tiny components to be taught in isolation and tested as discrete units.
- Until children master the skills of phonics, word recognition, spelling, handwriting, etc., they are not ready to do actual reading or writing.
- The sequences of isolated skills in teacher's manuals for basal readers and in standardized tests mirror developmental stages of growth.
- Children learn best when they read from simplified basal readers that tightly control vocabulary and sentence structure. For primary children such textbooks are often organized around phonic patterns.
- Writing instruction begins with handwriting and copying to master the basic skills.
- Punctuation is learned through workbook and ditto sheet exercises.
- Reading and writing competence is reflected in the scores on tests of "sub-skills."
- Children who do poorly on "sub-skills" are diagnosed as poor readers, no matter how they comprehend what they read. Children who cannot be made to work on skill sheets may be diagnosed as behavior problems.

What Happens in Whole Language Classrooms

- Teachers often read aloud or tell stories to children.
- Children choose their own reading material much of the time.
- Skills are acquired naturally in the context of meaningful oral interaction and literacy events.
- Objects and learning centers in primary classrooms frequently have labels. Sets of directions, including information on storing materials, are written on charts or activity cards to guide children's engagement with materials.
- Teachers assemble classroom libraries of trade books representing unabridged, unsimplified literature. For

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beginners, predictable plots and repetitive refrains invite the children's involvement as co-creators (Routman, 1988).

- Children have daily opportunities for uninterrupted reading.
- Teachers model the act of reading and writing by reading and writing themselves while the children do so.
- Teachers model reading by reading high-interest, predictable big books, pointing out the words as the children read along with the teacher.
- Teachers sometimes guide children's reading, showing them how to predict, ask appropriate questions, and map what they have read.
- Teachers foster discussions of books, encouraging learners how to talk about the moral and ethical issues presented in literature, or to connect fiction with their own lives.
- Children participate in literature circles in which they share and talk about books they have read (Atwell, 1987).
- Small groups report on information they have learned from books.
- Children turn stories into scripts, rehearse them, and present them as puppet shows, plays, or tapes.
- Children usually choose the topics they want to write about.
- Teachers sometimes demonstrate writing by putting the children's contributions onto experience charts that can then be read together.
- Children write and illustrate their own books that are shared with the class.
- Teachers coach children through the various parts of the writing process (prewriting, drafting, revising, and editing), conferencing with them at various stages.
- Children meet in small groups to read their own writing and get responses from their peers.
- Children meet in pairs to edit their written work together before copying it for publication.
- Teachers support student-centered learning by creating a literate environment, stimulating interest by helping children connect new experience with previous experience, and facilitating the learners' achievement.
- Teachers integrate the language arts by developing the curriculum around broad themes, such as Indians or mammals.
- Teachers evaluate the progress of learners by documenting their ongoing work in the classroom, analyzing their reading miscues and progress in invented spelling, and keeping portfolios of their writing to show growth (Goodman, et al., 1968).

Theory and Research Supporting Whole Language

Whole Language is consistent with the most respected understandings of how children learn, some of which go back to the early decades of this century. Whole Language is rooted in the seminal work of John Dewey, Lev Vygotsky, Jean Piaget, James Moffett, James Britton, Michael Halliday, Donald Graves, Margaret Donaldson, Gordon Wells, Glenda Bissex, Kenneth Goodman, Anne Haas Dyson, and Shirley Brice Heath. These theorists and researchers have shown that human competence in oral and written language grows as language is used for real purposes—without formal drill, intensive corrective feedback, or direct instruction. Children learn as they engage as active agents constructing their own coherent views of the world and of the language human beings use to interact with the world and with each other. The development of writing and reading is fostered by meaningful social interaction, usually entailing oral language. "Language learning is different from other school subjects. It is not a *new* subject, and it is not even a *subject*. It permeates every part of people's lives and itself constitutes a major way of abstracting. So learning language raises more clearly than other school courses the issues of integration" (Moffett and Wagner, 1983). One pervasive response to this understanding of language is the Whole Language movement.

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This publication was prepared with funding from the Office of Educational Research and Improvement, U.S. Department of Education, under contract no. RI88062001. Contractors undertaking such projects under government sponsorship are encouraged to express freely their judgment in professional and technical matters. Points of view or opinions, however, do not necessarily represent the official view or opinions of the Office of Educational Research and Improvement.

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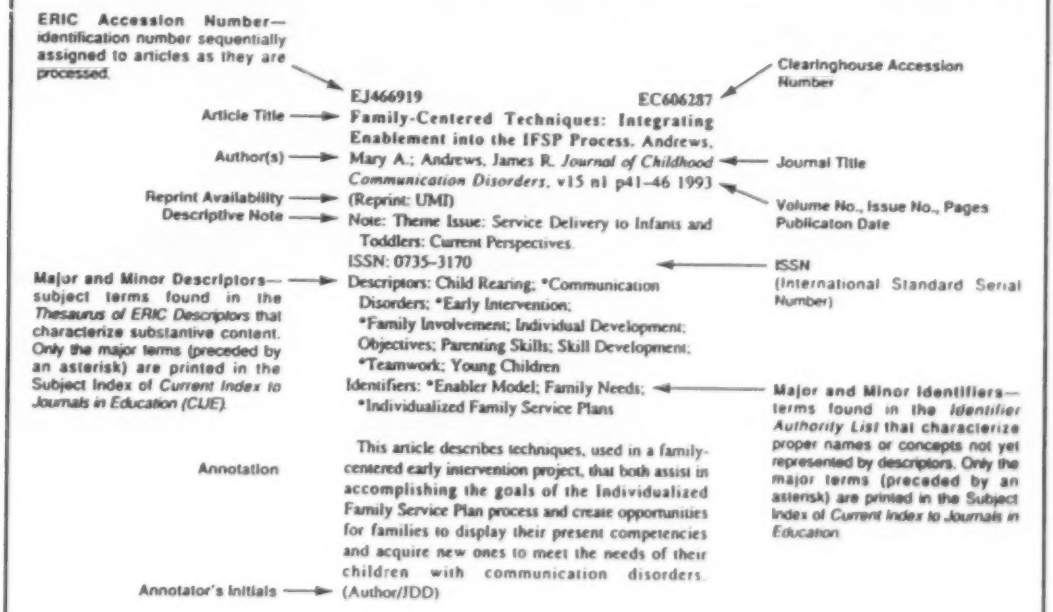
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EC606287
Clearinghouse Accession Number
Article Title
Family-Centered Techniques: Integrating Enablement into the IFSP Process. Andrews,
Author(s)
Mary A.; Andrews, James R. Journal of Childhood
Journal Title
Communication Disorders, v15 n1 p41-46 1993
Reprint Availability
(Reprint: UMI)
Descriptive Note
Note: Theme Issue: Service Delivery to Infants and Toddlers: Current Perspectives.
Volume No., Issue No., Pages Publicaton Date
ISSN: 0735-3170
ISSN (International Standard Serial Number)
Major and Minor Descriptors—subject terms found in the Thesaurus of ERIC Descriptors that characterize substantive content. Only the major terms (preceded by an asterisk) are printed in the Subject Index of Current Index to Journals in Education (CIJE).
Descriptors: Child Rearing; *Communication Disorders; *Early Intervention; *Family Involvement; Individual Development; Objectives; Parenting Skills; Skill Development; *Teamwork; Young Children
Identifiers: *Enabler Model; Family Needs; *Individualized Family Service Plans
Major and Minor Identifiers—terms found in the Identifier Authority List that characterize proper names or concepts not yet represented by descriptors. Only the major terms (preceded by an asterisk) are printed in the Subject Index of Current Index to Journals in Education.
Annotation
This article describes techniques, used in a family-centered early intervention project, that both assist in accomplishing the goals of the Individualized Family Service Plan process and create opportunities for families to display their present competencies and acquire new ones to meet the needs of their children with communication disorders.
Annotator's Initials
(Author/JDD)

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These Abstracts on Integrating the Language Arts are from the ERIC Educational Resources Database

AN: ED384048
AU: Argo,-Donna-K.-Sherrill
TI: **Integrated Language Arts: A Study of the Achievement of Sixth Grade Students in an Integrated Language Arts Program.**
PY: [1995]
NT: 77 p.; M.S. Thesis, Fort Hays State University.
PR: EDRS Price - MF01/PC04 Plus Postage.
AB: A study investigated the achievement of sixth-grade students in an integrated language arts curriculum. Subjects, 228 students in two schools in Southwestern Kansas, were divided into a treatment group of 128 students (who were taught using an integrated approach to language arts instruction) and a control group of 100 students (who were taught using a traditional approach). The independent variables were approach to instruction, gender, socioeconomic status, and race. The dependent variables were scores from the following scales of the California Achievement Test, Fifth Edition: Vocabulary, Reading Comprehension, Spelling, Language Mechanics, Language Expression, Reading Total, and Language Total. Four composite null hypotheses were tested employing a single-factor analysis of covariance. Of a total of 28 comparisons made, 13 were statistically significant. Results indicated that the integrated approach of language arts instruction yielded higher achievement: (1) in reading comprehension; (2) in spelling; (3) in language mechanics; (4) in language expression; (5) in reading total; (6) in language total; (7) for females in reading comprehension; (8) for females in language mechanics; (9) for students who pay full lunch price in vocabulary; (10) for Caucasian students in vocabulary; (11) for Caucasian students than Hispanic students in spelling; (12) for Caucasian students in language mechanics; and (13) for Caucasian students than Hispanic students in language total. (Contains 29 references and 4 tables of data. Appendixes present validity and reliability data for the California Achievement Test, a description of the integrated language arts program, and a computer analysis sheet.) (Author/RS)

AN: ED384005
AU: Fredericks,-Anthony-D.
TI: **The Integrated Curriculum: Books for Reluctant Readers, Grades 2-5.**
PY: 1992
AV: Teacher Ideas Press, P.O. Box 6633, Englewood, CO 80155-6633 ($21 plus shipping/handling).
NT: 200 p.
PR: Document Not Available from EDRS.
AB: Demonstrating that reading can and should be part of every curricular area, this book provides a wide selection of activities developed for 39 books selected on the basis of their interest level and application to the needs of reluctant readers in grades 2 through 5. The first part of the book presents guidelines for motivating students and encouraging active participation. After a description of "bookwebbing," the second part of the book presents summaries, critical thinking questions, and activities for reading/language arts, science/health, art, math, music, social studies, and physical education for the 39 children's books (10 each for grades 2 through 4, and 9 for grade 5). The third part of the book presents a 109-item list of books for grades 2 and 3, a 108-item list of books for grades 4 and 5, and an 85-item annotated bibliography of resources for children's literature, teachers, whole language, book reviews, book clubs for students, and book wholesalers. (RS)

AN: ED384002
AU: Ceaser,-Lisbeth
TI: **The Development of an Inservice for Instructional Grouping in an Integrated Language Arts Classroom. Human Resource Development.**
PY: 1992
NT: 34 p.; Ed.D. Practicum, Nova University.
PR: EDRS Price - MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
AB: A developmental project was designed to improve the course of study for Reading Specialist Credential candidates at California Polytechnic State University in San Luis Obispo (Cal Poly). The project is an example of action research that systematically developed an inservice presentation for improvement of classroom instruction in language arts. Reading Specialist candidates reviewed the literature, developed evaluation criteria, designed an inservice outline, and implemented the program in a variety of school settings. The Reading Coordination of the University Center for Teacher Education at Cal Poly validated the development process and the inservice by including both in the course of study for "Education 531: Supervision of Reading." The results of the project showed that the systematic development of an inservice on instructional grouping for an integrated language arts program did improve the training course of study for reading specialist candidates at Cal Poly. Recommendations include the implementation of the development process and inservice outline in the "Reading Specialist Course of Study" at Cal Poly. (Contains 12 references. Appendixes present an evaluation form, a grouping inservice outline, and a grouping inservice evaluation form.) (Author/RS)

AN: ED383992
AU: Seely,-Amy-E.
TI: **Integrated Thematic Units: Professional's Guide.**
PY: 1995
AV: Teacher Created Materials, Inc., 6421 Industry Way, Westminster, CA 92683 (TCM 840: $8.95).
NT: 82 p.
PR: Document Not Available from EDRS.
AB: Explaining that an integrated curriculum is one that makes explicit the ways in which connections between ideas are perceived, this book provides background and offers practical suggestions for

implementing and managing an integrated curriculum in the classroom. The book notes that the integrated curriculum approach goes by many names--integrated thematic units, integrated curriculum, thematic teaching, theme study, and learning across the curriculum--and advocates this approach to learning and teaching as a pathway for learners and teachers to construct meaningful connections between the classroom and the world at large. Tracing the background of the approach to John Dewey and progressive education (and even earlier), the book argues that the process of interlinking and correlating ideas across content areas enables students to unite experiences and generalize knowledge. Chapters in the book are: (1) Beginnings: A Preview to Integration; (2) Classrooms That Support Integrated Learning; (3) Developing Integrated Thematic Units; (4) Intradisciplinary Curriculum; (5) Interdisciplinary Curriculum; (6) Assessment Issues for an Integrated Curriculum; and (7) Bringing It All Together. (NKA)

AN: EJ502129
AU: Ast,-Rick
TI: Ten UP: Rethinking High School.
PY: 1995
JN: Green-Teacher; n42 p30-31 Feb-Mar 1995
AB: Describes the Ten Unified Program (Ten UP) a "school within a school" in which 4 teachers and 80 grade-10 students collaborate on integrated learning projects. The program integrates global education with students' personal concerns and questions in order to make learning more engaging and worthwhile for students. (LZ)

AN: EJ500285
AU: McKay,-Roberta
TI: Social Studies as a Form of Literacy: Beyond Language across the Curriculum. Current Concerns.
PY: 1994
JN: Canadian-Social-Studies; v29 n1 p11-12 Fall 1994
AV: UMI
AB: Discusses language across the curriculum movement and its impact on current social studies teaching. Asserts that social studies as a form of literacy means being able to understand the world from multiple perspectives. Recommends that social studies teachers implement inquiry and language principles across the curriculum. (CFR)

AN: ED380785
AU: Mueller,-Faye; And-Others
TI: Portraits of Exemplary Literacy Practices: The Arizona Initiative for Children.
CS: Far West Lab. for Educational Research and Development, San Francisco, Calif.
PY: 1995
NT: 32 p.
PR: EDRS Price - MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
AB: This booklet presents portraits of 10 Literacy Sites selected by the Arizona Department of Education, sites where the entire school was involved in the Arizona Literacy Initiative for Children. An introductory section of the booklet discusses the Initiative, which was established to promote early experiences in reading and writing that would motivate students and build better literacy skills in the kindergarten through third grade public school population through an integration of the language arts. Sections of the booklet are: (1) Weaving Writing, Speaking, Reading, Listening into Literacy; (2) Using Literacy for Purposeful Learning; (3) Making Literacy Meaningful; (4) Supporting Literacy through School Culture. An appendix lists the 10 sites. (RS)

AN: ED379687
AU: Sorensen,-Marilou-R., Ed.; Lehman,-Barbara-A., Ed.
TI: Teaching with Children's Books: Paths to Literature-Based Instruction.
CS: National Council of Teachers of English, Urbana, Ill.
PY: 1995
AV: National Council of Teachers of English, 1111 W. Kenyon Rd., Urbana, IL 61801-1096 (Stock No. 52929-0015: $14.95 members, $19.95 nonmembers).
NT: 281 p.; A project of the NCTE Committe on Literature-Based Language Arts Instruction in Elementary and Middle Schools.
PR: EDRS Price - MF01/PC12 Plus Postage.
AB: Pointing out that understanding, considering, preparing, modeling, teaching, collaborating, assessing, and supporting are steps along the path to using literature in the classroom, the essays in this book provide a solid background for those teachers who are considering making the transition to literature-based instruction in their classrooms. Essays and their authors are: (1) "Questions of Definition" (Glenna Sloan); (2) "Perspectives on the Use of Children's Literature in Reading Instruction" (Mary Jo Skillings); (3) "The Literature-Based Movement Today: Research into Practice" (Barbara A. Lehman); (4) "Journey from Hypocrisy: The Teacher as Reader Becomes a Teacher of Readers" (Donna Peters); (5) "Children's Literature, Language Development, and Literacy" (Virginia G. Allen); (6) "Literary Characters Who Write: Models and Motivators for Middle School Writers" (Sharon Kane); (7) "The Power of Story and Storying: Children's Books as Models" (Karla Hawkins Wendelin); (8) "Decisions about Curriculum in a Literature-Based Program" (Patricia R. Crook); (9) "Teaching with Literature: Some Answers to Questions That Administrators Ask" (Jean McCabe); (10) "Developing a Teaching Guide for Literary Teaching" (Marilou R. Sorensen); (11) "The Different Faces of Literature-Based Instruction" (Barbara A. Lehman); (12) "A Literary Studies Model Curriculum for Elementary Language Arts Programs" (Jill P. May); (13) "Self-Selected Books of Beginning Readers: Standing before the Smorgasbord" (Mary Jo Fresch); (14) "Thematic Units: Integrating the Curriculum" (Sylvia M. Vardell); (15) "Making the Move from Basals to Trade Books: Taking the Plunge" (Patricia L. Scharer); (16) "Teaching and Learning Critical Aesthetic Responses to Literature" (Patricia J. Cianciolo); (17) "Guiding Children's Critical Aesthetic Responses to Literature in a Fifth-Grade Classroom" (Renee Leonard); (18) "Literature in the Classroom: From Dream to Reality" (Gloria Kinsley Hoffman); (19) "Hear Ye, Hear Ye, and Learn

the Lesson Well: Fifth Graders Read and Write about the American Revolution" (Gail E. Tompkins); (20) "Supporting Children's Learning: Informational Books across the Curriculum" (Evelyn B. Freeman); (21) "Keeping the Reading Lights Burning" (Peter Roop); (22) "'Joyful Noises' across the Curriculum: Confessions of a Would-Be Poetry Teacher" (Joel D. Chaston); (23) "Literary Tapestry: An Integrated Primary Curriculum" (Peggy Oxley); (24) "Collaborating with Children on Theme Studies" (Linda Lamme); (25) "Teachers Encouraging a Love for Literature" (Charles A. Elster and others); (26) "Assessment in a Literature-Based Classroom" (Linda J. Fenner); and (27) "Support Groups for Literature-Based Teaching" (Marilou R. Sorensen). (NKA)

AN: ED379067
AU: Dodge,-Diane-Trister; And-Others
TI: Constructing Curriculum for the Primary Grades.
PY: 1994
AV: Teaching Strategies, Inc., P.O. Box 42243, Washington, DC 20015 ($39.95; discount on orders over 10 copies).
NT: 438 p.
PR: EDRS Price - MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
AB: There is a growing consensus among educators that a major reason why traditional curriculum approaches have failed is that they are not based on knowledge of what is age-appropriate or individually appropriate for young children. This book provides practitioners with a practical framework for making curriculum effective and responsive for children in the primary grades. Part 1 presents the six teaching strategies for constructing and implementing such a curriculum: (1) knowing the children by understanding their developmental and individual characteristics as well as their cultural context; (2) building a classroom community that is able to address children's social, emotional, and cognitive development; (3) structuring the classroom and involving children in it; (4) guiding children's learning by encouraging their participation; (5) assessing children's learning; and (6) building a partnership with a significant adult in the child's home life. Part 2 of the book shows how the five subject areas of curriculum content--language and literacy, mathematical thinking, scientific thinking, social studies, and the arts and technology--can be taught within a developmentally appropriate framework. Lists of resources and references appear throughout the book. (BAC)

AN: EJ492820
AU: Guthrie,-John-T.; And-Others
TI: Performance Assessments in Reading and Language Arts (Reading Assessment).
PY: 1994
JN: Reading-Teacher; v48 n3 p266-71 Nov 1994
AV: UMI
AB: Describes a performance assessment which accompanies an integrated curriculum for the third and fifth grades in two schools and is designed to reflect a wide spectrum of literacy processes that appear in an integrated curriculum. Follows two third-grade students as they perform each of the tasks. (SR)

AN: EJ484885
AU: Darlington,-Sonja; Dake,-Dennis
TI: Interdisciplinary Curriculum Possibilities for Middle School Visual and Language Arts Education.
PY: 1994
JN: Middle-School-Journal; v25 n5 p46-51 May 1994
AV: UMI
AB: Describes a thematic, interdisciplinary, middle-school curriculum that integrates visual and language arts. Curriculum embodies three principles: (1) visual and verbal responses depend on meaningful interaction among the artist (writer), the art object (text), the viewer (reader), and the environment (context); (2) visual and verbal thinking are metaphoric thinking; (3) creating and interpreting an art object involves critical thinking skills. (MLH)

AN: EJ482325
AU: McDonald,-Jacqueline; Czerniak,-Charlene
TI: Developing Interdisciplinary Units: Strategies and Examples.
PY: 1994
JN: School-Science-and-Mathematics; v94 n1 p5-10 Jan 1994
AV: UMI
AB: A theme of sharks is used to illustrate the process of developing interdisciplinary units for middle school instruction, including a model for teams of teachers to follow. As activities evolve, a concept map is created to illustrate relationships and integration of ideas and activities for various disciplines. (Contains 10 references.) (MKR)

AN: EJ481297
AU: Miller,-Terry
TI: Improving the Schoolwide Language Arts Program: A Priority for All Middle School Teachers.
PY: 1994
JN: Middle-School-Journal; v25 n4 p26-29 Mar 1994
AV: UMI
AB: Very few students in the fifth through eighth grades have mastered basic reading/writing/thinking strategies. Improving language arts outcomes is the responsibility of all middle school teachers. The first step is achieving faculty and community consensus on ideal student outcomes in reading, writing, speaking, and listening. Implementing language strategy modeling, practice, and feedback is essential. (Contains 13 references.) (MLH)

AN: EJ481291
AU: Scarnati,-James-T.
TI: Interview with a Wild Animal: Integrating Science and Language Arts.
PY: 1994
JN: Middle-School-Journal; v25 n4 p3-6 Mar 1994
AV: UMI
AB: Using a unit on earthworms, this article shows how science and language arts can be successfully integrated in a middle school classroom through hands-on observation, interviewing, and writing exercises. The integration process engages students,

uses class time more efficiently, encourages dialog, and improves outcomes and appreciation of the natural world. (MLH)

AN: EJ476720
AU: Alleman,-Janet; Brophy,-Jere
TI: Is Curriculum Integration a Boon or a Threat to Social Studies? Elementary Education.
PY: 1993
JN: Social-Education; v57 n6 p287-91 Oct 1993
AV: UMI
AB: Argues that curriculum integration may lead to a diminution of social studies content. Contends that classroom activities done in the name of curriculum integration often have no educational value. Provides five guidelines to determine whether an instructional activity is appropriate for curriculum integration. (CFR)

AN: EJ473658
AU: Schlene,-Vickie-J.
TI: Integrated Curriculum and Instruction: An ERIC/ChESS Sample.
PY: 1993
JN: Social-Studies-Review; v32 n3 p70-73 Spr 1993
AV: UMI
AB: Provides an annotated list of 10 items from the ERIC database about integrated curriculum and instruction. (CFR)

AN: EJ467878
AU: Farivar,-Sydney
TI: Continuity and Change: Planning an Integrated History-Social Science/English-Language Arts Unit.
PY: 1993
JN: Social-Studies-Review; v32 n2 p17-24 Win 1993
AV: UMI
AB: Presents a plan for developing and teaching an interdisciplinary curriculum unit combining social studies/social science and English/language arts. Argues that an integrated curriculum based on history and social studies is the key to an effective interdisciplinary unit. Provides suggested resources and instructional ideas. (CFR)

AN: EJ467877
AU: Schubert,-Barbara
TI: Literacy: What Makes It Real: Integrated, Thematic Teaching.
PY: 1993
JN: Social-Studies-Review; v32 n2 p7-16 Win 1993
AV: UMI
AB: Asserts that education cannot be limited to the confines of a textbook but must be a true window to the world. Argues that this can be achieved through curriculum and thematic teaching. Provides suggestions for designing and teaching integrated, thematic units. (CFR)

AN: EJ461023
AU: Carroll,-Jacquelin-H.; And-Others
TI: Integrated Language Arts Instruction (Reviews and Reflections).
PY: 1993
JN: Language-Arts; v70 n4 p310-15 Apr 1993
AV: UMI
NT: Themed Issue: Integrated Language Arts Instruction.
AB: Reviews six professional books and classroom materials that could support teachers and other educators in making the transition from integrating reading and writing to a synthesis of language arts with other areas of the curriculum. (RS)

AN: EJ461021
AU: Pappas,-Christine-C.; And-Others
TI: Collaborating with Teachers Developing Integrated Language Arts Programs in Urban Schools (Focus on Research).
PY: 1993
JN: Language-Arts; v70 n4 p297-303 Apr 1993
AV: UMI
NT: Themed Issue: Integrated Language Arts Instruction.
AB: Illustrates the concerns and problems that two teachers have tackled and are currently addressing as they change their teaching to an integrated language program. Considers issues and dilemmas that emerge when teachers begin to share power with their students. Covers some parallel power issues that arise in the collaboration between university-based and school-based teacher researchers. (RS)

AN: EJ434191
AU: VanGelder,-Susan; MacLean,-Margaret
TI: Telecommunications in an Integrated Language Arts Unit.
PY: 1989
JN: Canadian-Journal-of-English-Language-Arts; v12 n3 p22-33 1989
NT: Final edition.
AB: Describes a telecommunications project which linked a grade six classroom in Montreal with a grade seven classroom in Povungnituk (in northern Quebec). Discusses how the project was organized and the benefits in terms of how it helped to develop communication skills and promote cultural awareness. (MG)

AN: EJ433433
AU: Paul,-Rebecca-K.
TI: Chimera: Experiencing Language Arts.
PY: 1991
JN: Childhood-Education; v67 n5 p309-12 1991
AV: UMI
NT: Theme Issue: Are Schools Really for Kids?
AB: Describes the production of a dramatic musical, Chimera: A Journey to Redoubtia, at Chapman Elementary School in Anchor Point, Alaska. Student participation in the project, and students' rewards from participation, are detailed. Benefits of the integration of dramatics into the language arts curriculum are listed. (BB)

AN: EJ433304
AU: Stanek,-Lou-Willett
TI: Whole Language for Whole Kids: An Approach for Using Literature in the Classroom.
PY: 1991
JN: School-Library-Journal; v37 n9 p187-89 Sep 1991
AV: UMI

AB: Discusses the use of literature in the whole-language approach. Examples show the integr on of a second grader's experiences with the curriculum; integrating the language arts in the middle school via study of the author as well as the book; and the integration of literature into the study of history. Titles to use in each area are suggested. (12 references) (LRW)

AN: EJ432657
AU: Vogt,-MaryEllen
TI: An Observation Guide for Supervisors and Administrators: Moving toward Integrated Reading/Language Arts Instruction.
PY: 1991
JN: Reading-Teacher; v45 n3 p206-11 Nov 1991
AV: UMI
AB: Shares an observation guide, created by the author, for supervisors and administrators to use to assist teachers who are working toward an integrated reading/language arts program. (MG)

AN: EJ432386
AU: Mitsch,-Bernadette-Volpe
TI: Reading + Writing = Drama: Integrating Reading/Writing in a Thematic Unit.
PY: 1989
JN: Ohio-Reading-Teacher; v24 n1 p43-46 Fall 1989
AV: UMI
AB: Describes a collaborative project between instructors in language arts and social studies at the middle school level that produced a joint educational venture that made reading and writing more meaningful, challenging, and exciting for students and teachers. Describes a "Who's Who" thematic unit integrating reading, writing, and drama. (MG)

AN: ED367466
AU: Sumner,-Deborah, Ed.
TI: Whole Teaching: Keeping Children in the Center of Curriculum and Instruction. SDE Sourcebook. 6th Edition.
CS: Society for Developmental Education, Peterborough, NH.
PY: 1993
AV: Society for Developmental Education, Route 202, P.O. Box 577, Peterborough, NH 03458 ($24.95, plus $3.50 shipping).
NT: 354 p.
PR: Document Not Available from EDRS.
AB: This sourcebook contains articles, resources, and sample teaching materials to assist practitioners implementing developmentally appropriate practices in the classroom. The first six parts of the sourcebook contain reprints of more than 40 journal articles, topical bibliographies and resource lists, and sample teaching materials. The topics of these first six parts are: (1) early childhood and developmental education; (2) educational reform; (3) learning styles and needs; (4) multiage practices; (5) integrated language arts; and (6) assessment. Part 7 contains a variety of resources, including a bibliography of whole language professional books containing over 280 items; a 79-item bibliography on poetry; and lists of publications and special interest groups, materials suppliers, videos, book publishers, children's magazines, and sources of songs and stories. (TJQ)

AN: ED366943
AU: Block,-Cathy-Collins
TI: Teaching the Language Arts: Expanding Thinking through Student-Centered Instruction.
PY: 1993
AV: Allyn and Bacon, Order Processing, P.O. Box 11071, Des Moines, IA 50336-1071 ($52).
NT: 577 p.
PR: Document Not Available from EDRS.
AB: Describing the numerous changes that have occurred in language arts instruction within the past few years, this book explains these changes, as well as modern concepts, materials, and instructional techniques to assist language arts teachers. The books describes several innovative approaches to instruction, such as how to teach phonics and compare/contrast strategies in an integrative, whole language based program; how new middle school language arts programs can be built; and how to build students' higher level thinking and creativity through language arts instruction and real-world assessments. After introductory comments, each chapter is divided in three sections: Theoretical Foundations; Putting Theory into Practice; and Strategies That Teach. Chapters in the book are: (1) Language and Thinking Development in the Elementary School; (2) Putting Your Philosophy into Action: Designing Your Student Communication Center; (3) The Students Arrive: Developing Students' Oral Communication Abilities; (4) Listening: Beginning to Build the Student Communication Center; (5) Reading Instruction in a Student Communication Center, Part I; (6) Reading Instruction in a Student Communication Center, Part II; (7) Writing to Communicate and Think; (8) Revising: Using Grammar, Rewriting, and Rephrasing as Tools to Clarify Meaning; (9) Editing: Teaching Spelling and Other Writing Conventions; (10) Integrating Language Arts across the Curriculum; (11) Creative Expression: One Step Beyond Integration; (12) Teaching Students to Communicate with High Level Thinking; (13) Special Needs of Kindergartners and Middle School Students; (14) Students with Special Language Needs: Meeting the Challenge of Diversity in the Classroom; and (15) Assessing Your Language Arts Program. (RS)

AN: ED366906
AU: Thames,-Dana-G.; Reeves-Kazelskis,-Carolyn
TI: Effects of an Integrated Language Arts Instructional Program on Learning Lab Students' Reading Comprehension.
PY: 1993
NT: 22 p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Mid-South Educational Research Conference (22nd, New Orleans, LA, November 10-12, 1993).
PR: EDRS Price - MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.
AB: The effects of an integrated language arts instructional program on reading comprehension skills of learning lab students were examined using the Analytical Reading Inventory, and their attitudes toward recreational and academic reading were assessed using the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey. Subjects were at-risk fifth and sixth grade

students, ranging in age from 12 to 16 years, who were enrolled in a single, self-contained learning lab class in southeast Mississippi. The integrated language arts instructional treatment period lasted for 9 months, with students responding to pre- and post-measures in September and May, respectively. Results of correlated t-tests revealed significant improvement in five out of six comprehension areas: ability to recall main ideas, ability to recall factual information, vocabulary development, inferential skills, and drawing conclusions. Ability to recognize cause-effect relationships was not significantly affected. Also, students improved significantly in their oral, independent-reading performance as well as in their word recognition skills. Students did not improve significantly in their attitudes toward recreational and academic reading. (One table of data is included; 14 references are attached.) (Author/RS)

AN: ED366589
AU: Bloodsworth,-Gaston; Fitzgerald,-Doris
TI: A Multicultural Model for Rural At-Risk Students.
PY: [1993]
NT: 15 p.
PR: EDRS Price - MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.
AB: Education reform mandates that teachers be able to function competently in multicultural classrooms. This paper describes a culturally aware teaching model designed to address the problems and needs of rural at-risk students. The major goal of the model is to empower students through acceptance, understanding, respect, and appreciation of both the self and other cultures. The pedagogically nontraditional model, developmental in nature, stresses a common culture curriculum that includes contributions of Black, Native American, Hispanic, Asian, and religious minorities within the student population. The program integrates social studies and language arts to form a core curriculum and draws heavily from literature as a means of teaching much of the content area. Emphasis is placed not on the textbook, but on creative experiences developed through the unit approach and the use of appropriate literature. To match the unique learning styles and characteristics of rural students, cooperative learning experiences are introduced. This approach enhances the self-worth of rural at-risk students and strengthens the positive correlations between self-concept and school achievement, thus reducing the at-risk factor. (Contains 22 references.) (LL)

AN: ED364900
AU: Barchers,-Suzanne-I.
TI: Teaching Language Arts: An Integrated Approach.
PY: 1994
AV: West Publishing Co., 610 Opperman Dr., P.O. Box 64526, St. Paul, MN 55164-0526 ($50.75).
NT: 551 p.
PR: Document Not Available from EDRS.
AB: Based on the belief that the teaching and learning of language are inextricably intertwined, this book addresses the challenge of providing an integrated language arts program in the elementary and middle school level that bridges traditional instruction and thematic, whole language, or literature-based instruction. The book also presents ways to enhance basal textbooks, and several chapters have sections on fostering the involvement of parents and volunteers. Chapters in the book are: (1) Integrating the Language Arts: An Overview; (2) Language Acquisition; (3) Creating a Literate Environment; (4) Listening and Speaking; (5) Strategies and Activities for Listening and Speaking; (6) Integrating Reading and Writing; (7) Strategies and Activities for Reading and Writing; (8) Literature; (9) Viewing; (10) Handwriting; (11) Spelling; (12) Grammar and Usage; (13) Integrating the Language Arts through Thematic Units; (14) Evaluation; and (15) Classroom Management. A thematic unit on space exploration, a unit on fables for grades three and up, and a unit on tall tales for grades five and up are included; eight appendixes presenting resource lists, and an appendix discussing how to create a literate home environment are attached. (RS)

AN: ED362488
AU: Smith,-J.-Lee; And-Others
TI: Negotiation: Student-Teacher Collaborative Decision Making in an Integrative Curriculum.
PY: 1993
NT: 22 p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (Atlanta, GA, April 12-16, 1993).
PR: EDRS Price - MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
AB: This case study of a university-school collaborative project examines the roles that seventh grade language arts students can play in classroom curricular decision making, the degree to which a teacher can negotiate with students about content, and how both students and teacher are able to balance the dynamics of control and responsibility for learning within an integrative language arts curriculum. A thematic unit was developed based on student concerns about death of the individual and of the Earth. The instructional outline included a time of reflective thinking and focusing, a time for discussion, and a time for group and individual learning. The teacher's role became one of facilitator, through questioning and asking for clarification of student projects, and negotiator, through identifying the parameters of study and allowing students to make choices and assume responsibilities for their learning. The paper concludes that the students eagerly accepted the invitation of negotiated decision making with their teacher and took their role as partner in learning seriously. An integrative curriculum was found to be a feasible way to approach sharing control in the language arts curriculum. The students actively engaged in content, language activities, social learning, and academic interaction while exercising their values and voices in decision making. Students' personal and social concerns intertwined, motivating students to learn. (Contains 11 references.) (JDD)

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AN: ED361696
AU: Templeton,-Shane
TI: **Teaching the Integrated Language Arts.**
PY: 1991
AV: Houghton Mifflin Company, Order Dept., Wayside Rd., Burlington, MA 01803 ($49.96 plus state sales tax plus $3 postage/handling.)
NT: 610 p.
PR: Document Not Available from EDRS.
AB: Based on the premise that elementary students must be engaged in frequent reading, writing, and speaking throughout all areas of an integrated curriculum, this book is intended for a first course in language arts for preservice teachers. The book can also be used for courses in which reading and language arts theory and methods are combined. The book includes a number of features to help students: focusing questions at the beginning of each chapter address major concepts that students should acquire; classroom examples illustrate teaching in action; annotated bibliographies appear directly within chapters and list children's literature and professional resources; and "expand your teaching repertoire" lists provide in-depth walk-throughs of instructional strategies and activities. Chapters in the book are: (1) The Language Arts: Content and Context; (2) Thought and Language; (3) Our Language Heritage; (4) Classroom Organization and Management; (5) The Teaching of Listening, Speaking, and Creative Dramatics; (6) The Processes and Development of Reading and Writing; (7) The Teaching of Writing; (8) The Teaching of Reading; (9) Responding to Literature through Reading and Writing; (10) The Teaching of Vocabulary and Spelling; (11) The Teaching of Grammar and Handwriting; (12) Assessment and Evaluation of Students' Instructional Needs; and (13) Diversity in the Language Arts Classroom. Appendixes include a list of frequently occurring affixes and word stems; scopes and sequences for grammatical elements, elements of usage, and mechanics; and a list of recommended computer software for the language arts. (RS)

AN: ED352271
AU: Wall,-Guy; And-Others
TI: **"Magic Day": Multi-Disciplinary, Multi-Sensory Awareness Gathered and Integrated into the Curriculum.**
CS: Indiana Univ. Southeast, New Albany.
PY: 1992
AV: Indiana University Southeast, 4201 Grant Line Road, New Albany, IN 47150 ($2.75).
NT: 35 p.; For related document, see ED 164 458. Activity #15 and #45 contain small, dark, filled-in print.
PR: EDRS Price - MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
AB: This document contains a comprehensive set of activities that serve to integrate all the curricular areas commonly taught in elementary schools. The 45 activities are designed to encourage multi-disciplinary and multi-sensory learning experiences in a cemetery. In addition to their use in cemeteries, these field tested activities may also be appropriate for monuments, memorials, plaques, wooded areas, and historical markers and documents in other areas. Opportunities for discovery, self-initiated inquiry, comprehensive environmental awareness, and an appreciation for one's heritage are achievable outcomes of "Magic Day." (PR)

AN: ED336730
AU: Clemmons,-Joan; And-Others
TI: **Engaging the Learner in Whole Literacy: An Immersion Approach.**
PY: 1991
NT: 74 p.; Workshop presented at the Annual Meeting of the International Reading Association (36th, Las Vegas, NV, May 6-10, 1991).
PR: EDRS Price - MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
AB: This collection of administrative, planning, and teaching materials focuses on an immersion approach to engaging learners in whole literacy. The collection's 6 sections are as follows: (1) Role of the Administrator (Mary Dill); (2) Role of the Reading Teacher (Carleen Payne); (3) Batteries and Bulbs (DonnaLynn Estes); (4) Bears (Lois Lasse); (5) American Colonization and Revolution (Joan Clemmons); and (6) Portfolios (DonnaLynn Estes and others). Sections 3, 4, and 5 are interdisciplinary teaching units on the topics noted, each containing planning webs, unit descriptions and objectives, learning activities, and suggested books. An appendix contains worksheets, diagrams, and charts for learning activities. (SR)

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